AN

ESSAY

ON A COURSE OF

LIBERAL EDUCATION

FOR

CIVIL and ACTIVE LIFE.

WITH PLANS OF LECTURES ON

I. The Study of Hiſtory and general Policy.
II. The Hiſtory of ENGLAND.
III. The Conſtitution and Laws of ENGLAND.

BY

JOS. PRIESTLEY, LL.D. F.R.S.

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Foxwell
#756

Trimmed when read

TO

JOHN LEES Esq.

PRESIDENT,

AND TO THE REST OF THE TRUSTEES

OF THE

ACADEMY

AT

WARRINGTON,

This ESSAY is,

WITH THE GREATEST RESPECT AND GRATITUDE, INSCRIBED,

BY THEIR MOST OBLIGED,

AND MOST OBEDIENT,

HUMBLE SERVANT,

JOSEPH PRIESTLEY.

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THE PREFACE.

TO prevent the reader from being led into any miſtake by the title of this performance, it will be proper to adverti ſe him, that he is not to expect from it, the entire method of conducting the education of a young gentleman deſigned to fill any ſtation in civil and active life, much leſs the methods which are peculiarly adapted to each department in it ſeparately conſidered. I only mean to point out one capital defect in the uſual method of educating young gentlemen, who are not deſigned for any of the learned profeſſions, in places of public and liberal education; and at the ſame time, in ſome meaſure, to ſupply that defect by giving a delineation of a ſet of lectures

tures equally uſeful for any department of active life; ſuch as has a nearer connection with their conduct in it, and therefore may bid fairer, both to engage their attention, and be of real uſe to them, than any branch of learning to which they have hitherto been made to apply, after they have left the Grammar-*ſchool.*

I hope the candid reader will not imagine, that the following SYLLABUSES *contain an account of all the articles which enter into the lectures. He will ſee, from the manner in which they are drawn up, that they contain only the principal heads of diſcourſe, ſuch as would more naturally engage the attention, in glancing over the lectures in a curſory manner; but, by the help of them, any perſon, acquainted with the ſubject, may eaſily conjecture the reſt. Let it be conſidered alſo, that they contain the heads of the lectures only in their preſent imperfect ſtate, capable of great additions and improvements, which the lecturer flatters himſelf they will receive in a greater, or leſs degree, every time he delivers them.*

I alſo hope the reader will confine his attention to the principal object of this performance, and excuſe both the errors of the preſs he may obſerve in it, and alſo other inaccuracies,

----------Quas aut incuria fudit,
Aut humana parum cavit natura.------

My

My general deſign is beautifully expreſſed in the following lines of Mr. Thompſon, deſcribing the future happy ſtate of Great-Britain.

———————*Inſtead of barren Heads,*
Barbarian Pedants, wrangling Sons of Pride,
And Truth-perplexing metaphyſic Wits,
MEN, PATRIOTS, CHIEFS, AND CITIZENS
are formed.

Liberty, part 5.

Imperfect as this performance may be, I ſhall think myſelf happy if I, in any meaſure, ſucceed in an attempt, which every friend to his country and mankind will think a laudable one.

ERRATA.

PAGE 11. l. 3. dele *of and.*—25, l. 15. for *are written*, read *write.*—28. l. 17. for *thoſe*, read *theſe.*—30. l. 11. read *than three.*—32. l. 26. read *of ſo.*—33. l. 11. for *the* read *their.*—34. l. 10. dele *only.*—48. l. 3. for *term* read *terms.*—Ib. l. 5. for *cuſ* read *cus.*—97. l. 18. for *a* read *as.*

AN ESSAY

ON A COURSE OF

LIBERAL EDUCATION

FOR CIVIL AND ACTIVE LIFE.

IT ſeems to be a defect in our preſent ſyſtem of public education, that a proper courſe of ſtudies is not provided for Gentlemen who are deſigned to fill the principal ſtations of active life, diſtinct from thoſe which are adapted to the learned profeſſions. We have hardly any medium between an education for the Counting-houſe, conſiſting of Writing, Arithmetic, and Merchants-Accounts, and a method of inſtitution in the abſtract

ſciences: ſo that we have nothing liberal, that is worth the attention of gentlemen, whoſe views neither of theſe two oppoſite plans may ſuit.

FORMERLY, none but the clergy were thought to have any occaſion for learning. It was natural, therefore, that the whole plan of education, from the Grammar-ſchool, to the finiſhing at the univerſity ſhould be calculated for their uſe. If a few other perſons, who were not deſigned for holy orders, offered themſelves for education, it could not be expected that a courſe of ſtudies ſhould be provided for them only. And, indeed, as all thoſe perſons who ſuperintended the buſineſs of education were of the clerical order, and had themſelves been taught nothing but the Rhetoric, Logic, and School-Divinity which comprized the whole compaſs of human learning for ſeveral centuries; it could not be expected that they ſhould entertain larger or more liberal views of education; and ſtill leſs, that they ſhould ſtrike out a courſe of ſtudy, for the uſe of men who were univerſally thought to have no need of ſtudy; and, of whom, few were ſo ſenſible of their own wants as to deſire any ſuch advantage.

BESIDES

Besides, in thoſe days, the great ends of human ſociety ſeem to have been but little underſtood. Men of the greateſt rank, fortune, and influence; and who took the lead in all affairs of ſtate, had no idea of the great objects of wiſe and extenſive policy; and therefore never apprehended that any fund of knowledge was requiſite for the moſt eminent ſtations in the community. Few perſons imagined what were the true ſources of wealth, power, and happineſs in a nation. Commerce was little underſtood, or even attended to; and ſo ſlight was the connection of the different nations of Europe, that general politics were very contracted. And thus, men's views being narrow, little previous furniture of mind was requiſite to conduct them. A man who was capable of managing a private eſtate, in the poor manner in which eſtates were then managed, had underſtanding enough to conduct the affairs of a nation.

The conſequence of all this was, that the advances which were made to a more perfect and improved ſtate of ſociety were very ſlow; and the preſent happier ſtate of things was brought about, rather by an accidental concurrence of circumſtances, than by any efforts of human wiſdom and

foreſight. We ſee the hand of divine providence in thoſe revolutions which have gradually given a happier turn to affairs, while men have been the paſſive and blind inſtruments of their own felicity.

But the ſituation of things at preſent is vaſtly different from what it was two or three centuries ago. The objects of human attention are prodigiouſly multiplied; the connections of ſtates are extended; a reflection upon our preſent advantages, and the ſteps by which we have arrived to the degree of power and happineſs we now enjoy, has ſhewn us the true ſources of them; and ſo thoroughly awakened are all the ſtates of Europe to a ſenſe of their true intereſts, that we are convinced, the ſame ſupine inattention with which affairs were formerly conducted is no longer ſafe; and that, without ſuperior degrees of wiſdom and vigour in political meaſures, every thing we have hitherto gained will infallibly be loſt, and be quickly transferred to our more intelligent and vigilant neighbours. In this critical poſture of affairs, more lights and ſuperior induſtry are requiſite, both to miniſters of ſtate, and to all perſons who have any influence in ſchemes of public and national advantage; and conſequently a different and a better

furniture

furniture of mind is requiſite to be brought into the buſineſs of life.

This is certainly a call upon us to examine the ſtate of education in this country, and to conſider how thoſe years are employed which men paſs previous to their entering into the world; for upon this their future behaviour and ſucceſs muſt, in a great meaſure, depend. A tranſition, which is not eaſy, can never be made with advantage; and therefore it is certainly our wiſdom to contrive, that the ſtudies of youth ſhould tend to fit us for the buſineſs of manhood; and that the objects of our attention, and turn of thinking in younger life ſhould not be too remote from the deſtined employment of our riper years. If this be not attended to, we muſt neceſſarily be mere novices upon our entering the great world, be almoſt unavoidably embarraſſed in our conduct, and, after all the time and expence beſtowed upon our education, be indebted to a ſeries of blunders for the moſt uſeful knowledge we ever acquire.

In what manner ſoever thoſe gentlemen who are not of any learned profeſſion, but who, in other capacities, have rendered the moſt important ſervices to their country, came by that knowledge which made them capable of it, I appeal to themſelves, whether

whether any conſiderable ſhare of it was acquired till they had finiſhed their ſtudies at the Univerſity. So remote is the general courſe of ſtudy at places of the moſt liberal education among us from the buſineſs of civil life, that many gentlemen, who have had the moſt liberal education their country could afford, have looked upon the real advantage of ſuch a liberal education as very problematical, and have either wholly diſpenſed with it in their own children; or, if they have ſent their ſons through the uſual circle of the ſchools, it has been chiefly through the influence of cuſtom and faſhion, or with a view to their forming connections which may be uſeful to them in future life. This appears by the little ſollicitude they ſhow about their ſons being grounded in thoſe ſciences, in which they themſelves might poſſibly have been conſiderable proficients, when they applied to them, but which, from their being foreign to the buſineſs of life in which they were afterwards engaged, they have now wholly forgotten.

INDEED, the ſevere and proper diſcipline of a Grammar-ſchool is become a common topic of ridicule; and few young gentlemen, except thoſe who are deſigned for

for ſome of the learned profeſſions, are made to ſubmit to the rigours of it. And it is manifeſt, that when no foundation is laid in a grammatical knowledge of the learned languages (which, in a large or public ſchool, cannot be done without very ſtrict diſcipline, and a ſevere application on the part both of the maſter and ſcholar) youth can be but ill qualified to receive any advantage from an univerſity education. Young gentlemen themſelves ſo frequently hear the learning which is taught in ſchools and univerſities ridiculed, that they often make themſelves eaſy with giving a very ſuperficial attention to it; concluding from the turn of converſation in the company they generally fall into, and which they expect to keep, that a few years will confound all diſtinction of learned and unlearned, and make it impoſſible to be known whether a man had improved his time at the univerſity or not.

These evils certainly call for redreſs; and let a perſon be reckoned a projector, a viſionary, or whatever any body pleaſes, that man is a friend of his country who obſerves and endeavours to ſupply any defects in the methods of educating youth. A well meaning and a ſenſible man may be miſtaken, but a good intention, eſpecially

if

if it be not wholly unaccompanied with good ſenſe, ought to be exempted from cenſure. What has occurred to me upon this ſubject I ſhall, without any further apology, propoſe to my fellow-citizens, and fellow-tutors, hoping that it will meet with a candid reception. It is true, I can boaſt no long or extenſive experience in the buſineſs of education, but I have not been a mere ſpectator in this ſcene; which, I hope, may exempt me from the ridicule and contempt which have almoſt ever fallen upon the ſchemes of thoſe perſons who have written only from their cloſets, and, without any experience, have raſhly attempted to handle this ſubject, in which, of all others, experiments only ought to guide theory; upon which hardly any thing worth attending to can be advanced *a priori*; and where the greateſt geniuſes, for want of experience, have been the the greateſt viſionaries; laying ſchemes the leaſt capable of being reduced to practice, or the moſt abſurd if they had been put in practice.

Let it be remembered, that the difficulty under preſent conſideration is, how to fill up with advantage thoſe years of a young gentleman's life which immediately precede his engaging in thoſe higher ſpheres of

of active life in which he is deſtined to move. Within the departments of active life, I ſuppoſe to be comprehended all thoſe ſtations in which a man's conduct will conſiderably affect the liberty and the property of his countrymen, and the riches, the ſtrength, and the ſecurity of his country; the firſt and moſt important ranks of which are filled by gentlemen of large property, who have themſelves the greateſt intereſt in the fate of their country, and who are within the influence of an honourable ambition to appear in the character of magiſtrates and legiſlators in the ſtate, or of ſtanding near the helm of affairs, and guiding the ſecret ſprings of government. The profeſſion of Law, alſo, certainly comes within the above deſcription of civil and active life, if a man hope to be any thing more than a practiſing attorney; the profeſſion of Arms, too, if a gentleman have any expectation of arriving at the higher ranks of military preferment; and the buſineſs of Merchandiſe, if we look beyond the ſervile drudgery of the warehouſe or counting-houſe. Divines and Phyſicians I conſider to be intereſted in this ſubject, only as gentlemen and general ſcholars, or as perſons who converſe, and have influence with gentlemen engaged in active life,

without any particular view to their reſpective profeſſions.

THAT the parents and friends of young gentlemen deſtined to act in any of theſe important ſpheres, may not think a liberal education unneceſſary to them, and that the young gentlemen themſelves may enter with ſpirit into the enlarged views of their friends and tutors; I would humbly propoſe ſome new articles of academical inſtruction, ſuch as have a nearer and more evident connection with the buſineſs of active life, and which may therefore bid fairer to engage the attention, and rouſe the thinking powers of young gentlemen of an active genius. The ſubjects I would recommend are CIVIL HISTORY, and more eſpecially, the important objects of CIVIL POLICY; ſuch as the theory of laws, government, manufactures, commerce, naval force &c. with whatever may be demonſtrated from hiſtory to have contributed to the flouriſhing ſtate of nations, to rendering a people happy and populous at home, and formidable abroad; together with thoſe articles of previous information without which it is impoſſible to underſtand the nature, connections and mutual influences of thoſe great objects.

To give a clearer idea of the ſubjects I would propoſe to the ſtudy of youth at places of public ~~of and~~ and liberal education, I have ſubjoined plans of three diſtinct courſes of lectures, which, I apprehend, may be ſubſervient to this deſign, divided into ſuch portions, as experience has taught me, may be conveniently diſcuſſed in familiar lectures of an hour each.

THE firſt courſe is on the STUDY OF HISTORY in general, and in its moſt extenſive ſenſe. It will be ſeen to conſiſt of ſuch articles as tend to enable a young gentleman to read hiſtory with underſtanding, and to reap the moſt valuable fruits of that engaging ſtudy. I ſhall not go over the particulars of the courſe in this place: let the Syllabus ſpeak for itſelf. Let it only be obſerved, that my view was, not merely to make hiſtory intelligible to perſons who may chuſe to read it for their amuſement; but, principally, to facilitate its ſubſerviency to the higheſt uſes to which it can be applied; to contribute to its forming the able ſtateſman, an dthe intelligent and uſeful citizen. It is true, that this is comprizing a a great deal more than the title of the courſe will ſuggeſt. But under the head of *objects of attention to a reader of hiſtory*, it was found convenient to diſcuſs the principal of

thoſe ſubjects which every gentleman of a liberal education is expected to underſtand, though they do not generally fall under any diviſion of the ſciences in a courſe of academical education: and yet, without a competent knowledge of theſe ſubjects, no perſon can be qualified to ſerve his country except in the loweſt capacities.

THIS courſe of lectures, it is alſo preſumed, will be found to contain a comprehenſive ſyſtem of that kind of knowledge which is peculiarly requiſite to gentlemen who intend to travel. For, ſince the great objects of attention to a reader of hiſtory, and to a gentleman upon his travels are evidently the ſame; it muſt be of equal ſervice to them both, to have their importance and mutual influences pointed out to them.

IT will likewiſe be evident to any perſon who inſpects this ſyllabus, that the ſubject of COMMERCE has by no means been overlooked. And it is hoped, that when thoſe gentlemen, who are intended to ſerve themſelves and their country in the reſpectable character of merchants, have heard the great maxims of commerce diſcuſſed in a ſcientifical and connected manner, as they deſerve, they will not eaſily be influenced by notions adopted in a random and haſty manner, and from ſuperficial views of things;

things; whereby they might, otherwiſe, be ſometimes induced to enter into meaſures ſeemingly gainful at preſent, but in the end prejudicial to their country, and to themſelves and poſterity as members of it.

THE next courſe of lectures, the plan of which is briefly delineated, is upon the HISTORY OF ENGLAND, and is deſigned to be an exemplification of the manner of ſtudying hiſtory recommended in the former courſe; in which the great uſes of it are ſhown, and the actual progreſs of every important object of attention diſtinctly marked, from the earlieſt accounts of the iſland to the preſent time.

To make young gentlemen ſtill more thoroughly acquainted with their own country, a third courſe of lectures (in connection with the two others) is ſubjoined; viz. on its PRESENT CONSTITUTION AND LAWS. But the particular uſes of theſe two courſes of lectures need not be pointed out here, as they are ſufficiently explained in the introductory addreſſes prefixed to each of them.

THAT an acquaintance with the ſubjects of theſe lectures is calculated to form the ſtateſman, the military commander, the lawyer, the merchant, and the accompliſhed country gentleman cannot be diſputed.

The

The principal objection, which may be made to this ſcheme, is the introduction of theſe ſubjects into academies, and ſubmitting them to the examination of youth, of the age at which they are uſually ſent to ſuch places of education. It will be ſaid by ſome, that theſe ſubjects are too deep, and too intricate for their tender age and weak intellects; and that, after all, it can be no more than a ſmattering of theſe great branches of knowledge that can be communicated to youth.

To prevent being miſunderſtood, let it be obſerved, that I would not propoſe that this courſe of ſtudies ſhould be entered upon by a young gentleman till he be ſixteen or ſeventeen years of age, or at leaſt, and only in ſome particular caſes, fifteen years; at which time of life, it is well known to all perſons concerned in the education of youth, that their faculties have attained a conſiderable degree of ripeneſs, and that, by proper addreſs, they are as capable of entering into any ſubject of ſpeculation as ever they will be. What is there in any of the ſubjects mentioned above, which requires more accuteneſs or comprehenſion than algebra, geometry, logic, and metaphyſics; to which ſtudents are generally made to apply about the ſame age.

And if it be only a ſmattering of political and commercial knowledge &c. which can be acquired in the method I propoſe; let it be obſerved, that it is nothing more than the rudiments of any ſcience which can be taught in a place of education. The maſter of ſcience is a character of which nothing more than the outline is ever drawn at an Academy, or the Univerſity; it is never finiſhed but by aſſiduous and long continued application afterwards. And ſuppoſing that only the firſt rudiments, the grand, plain and leading maxims of policy, with reſpect to arts, arms, commerce &c. be communicated to a young gentleman, if they be ſuch maxims as he is really deſtined to purſue in life, is it not better that he have ſome knowledge of them communicated early, and at a time when it is likely to make the deepeſt and moſt laſting impreſſion, than to be thrown into the practice without any regular theory at all? It is freely acknowledged, that the man of buſineſs is not to be finiſhed at an academy, any more than the man of ſcience. This character is not the child of inſtruction and theory only; but, on the other hand, neither is it the mere offspring of practice without inſtruction. And, certainly, if a knowledge of theſe ſubjects be of any uſe, the earlier they

they are attended to (after a perſon be capable of attending to them to any purpoſe) and the more regular is the method in which they are taught, the greater chance there is for their being thoroughly underſtood.

When ſubjects which have a connection are explained in a regular ſyſtem, every article is placed where the moſt light is reflected upon it from the neighbouring ſubjects. The plaineſt things are diſcuſſed in the firſt place, and are made to ſerve as axioms, and as the foundation of thoſe which are treated of afterwards. Without this regular method of ſtudying the elements of any ſcience, it ſeems impoſſible ever to gain a clear and comprehenſive view of it. But after a regular inſtitution, any particular part of a plan of inſtruction may be enlarged at any time, with eaſe, and without confuſion. With how much more eaſe and diſtinctneſs would a perſon be able to deliver himſelf upon any ſubject of policy or commerce, who had had the whole ſubject, and every thing belonging to it explained to him in its proper connection, than another of the ſame abilities, who ſhould only have dipped into the ſubject in a random manner, reading any treatiſe that might happen to fall in his

his way, or adopting his maxims from the company he might accidentally keep, and, conſequently, liable to be impoſed upon by the intereſted views with which men very often both write and ſpeak. For theſe are ſubjects, on which almoſt every writer or ſpeaker is to be ſuſpected, ſo much has party and intereſt to do with every thing relating to them.

SINCE, however, theſe ſubjects do enter into all ſenſible converſation, eſpecially with gentlemen engaged in civil life, it is a circumſtance extremely favourable to the ſtudy of them, that converſation will come greatly in aid of the lectures the young gentlemen hear upon them. It cannot fail to rouſe their attention, and increaſe their application to their ſtudies, when they hear the ſubjects of them diſcuſſed by their fathers, and the elder part of their friends and acquaintance, for whoſe underſtanding and turn of thinking they have conceived a great eſteem. They will liſten with greater attention to grave and judicious perſons, and become much more fond of their company, when they are able to underſtand their converſation, and to enter occaſionally into it; when they can ſay, that ſuch a ſentiment or fact was advanced in their lectures, and that one of their fel-

low pupils, or themſelves made ſuch a remark upon it. It is no wonder that many young gentlemen give but little attention to their preſent ſtudies, when they find that the ſubjects of them are never diſcuſſed in any ſenſible converſation to which they are ever admitted. If ſtudying theſe ſubjects only ſerve to give the generality of young gentlemen a taſte for converſing upon them, and qualify them to appear to tolerable advantage in ſuch converſations, the variety of lights, in which they are viewed upon thoſe occaſions, cannot fail to make them more generally underſtood: and the better theſe ſubjects are undeſtood by the bulk of the nation, the more probable it is that the nation will be benefited by ſuch knowledge.

If I were aſked what branches of knowledge a young gentleman ſhould, in my judgment, be maſter of, before he can ſtudy this courſe with advantage; I would anſwer, that a knowledge of the learned languages is not abſolutely neceſſary, but is very deſirable; eſpecially ſuch an inſight into Latin as may enable a perſon to read the eaſier claſſics, and ſupercede the uſe of a dictionary, with reſpect to thoſe more difficult Engliſh words which are derived from the Latin. The ſtudent of this courſe ſhould underſtand French very well, he

ſhould

ſhould alſo be a pretty good accomptant, be acquainted with the more uſeful branches of practical Mathematics; and, if poſſible, have ſome knowledge of Algebra and Geometry, which ought to be indiſpenſable in every plan of liberal education.

Some will be ready to object to theſe ſtudies, that a turn for ſpeculation unfits men for buſineſs. I anſwer, that nothing is more true, if thoſe ſpeculations be foreign to their employment. It is readily acknowledged, that a turn for poetry and the Belles Lettres might hurt a tradeſman, that the ſtudy of natural philoſophy might interfere with the practice of the law, and metaphyſics and the abſtract ſciences with the duty of a ſoldier. But it can never be ſaid that a counſellor can be unfitted for his practice by a taſte for the ſtudy of the law; or that a commander would be the worſe ſoldier for ſtudying books written on the art of war: nor can it be ſuppoſed that a merchant would do leſs buſineſs, or to worſe purpoſe, for having acquired a fondneſs for ſuch writers as Sir Joſiah Child, Gee, Poſtlethwait, Tucker, &c. and for being qualified to read them with underſtanding and judgment.

It muſt be allowed, that the mechanical parts of any employment will be beſt

performed by perſons who have no knowledge or idea of any thing beyond the mere practice. When a man's faculties are wholly employed upon one ſingle object, it is more probable that he will make himſelf completely maſter of it; and, having no further or higher views, he will more contentedly and chearfully give his whole time to his proper object. But no man, who can afford the expence of a liberal Education, enters upon any buſineſs with a view to ſpend his whole life in the mere mechanical part of it, and in performing a taſk impoſed upon him. A man of ſpirit will laudably aſpire to be a maſter in his turn; when he muſt be directed by his own lights, and when he will find himſelf miſerably bewildered, if he have acquired no more knowledge than was ſufficient for him while he followed the direction of others. Beſides, in the caſe of merchandiſe, if one branch fail, there is no reſource but in more extenſive knowledge. A man who has been uſed to go only in one beaten track, and who has had no idea given him of any other, for fear of his being tempted to leave it, will be wholly at a loſs when it happens that that track can be no longer uſed; while a perſon who has a general idea of the whole courſe of the country may be able to

ſtrike out another, and perhaps a better road than the former.

I AM aware of a different kind of an objection, from another quarter, which it behoves me not to over-look. The advocates for the old plan of education, and who diſlike innovations in the number or the diſtribution of the ſciences in which lectures are given, may object to the admiſſion of theſe ſtudies, as in danger of attracting the attention of thoſe ſtudents who are deſigned for the learned profeſſions; and thereby interfering too much with that which has been found, by the experience of generations, to be the beſt for ſcholars, the proper ſubjects of which are ſufficient to fill up all their time, without theſe ſupernumerary articles. I anſwer, that the ſubjects of theſe lectures are by no means neceſſary articles of a mere ſcholaſtic education; but that they are ſuch as ſcholars ought to have ſome acquaintance with; and, that without ſome acquaintance with them, they muſt, upon many occaſions, appear to great diſadvantage, in the preſent ſtate of knowledge.

TIME was, when ſcholars might, with a good grace, diſclaim all pretenſions to any branch of knowledge but what was taught in the univerſities: perhaps, they would

be

be the more revered by the vulgar on account of ſuch ignorance, as an argument of their being more abſtracted from the world. Few books were written but by critics and antiquaries, for the uſe of men like themſelves. The literati of thoſe days had comparatively little free intercourſe but among themſelves; the learned world and the common world being much more diſtinct from one another than they are now. Scholars by profeſſion read, wrote, and converſed in no language but the Roman. They would have been aſhamed to have expreſſed themſelves in bad Latin, but not in the leaſt on being guilty of any impropriety in the uſe of their mother tongue, which they conſidered as belonging only to the vulgar.

But thoſe times of revived antiquity have had their uſe, and are now no more. We are obliged to the learned labours of our forefathers for ſearching into all the remains of antiquity, and illuſtrating valuable ancient authors; but their maxims of life will not ſuit with the world as it is at preſent. The politeneſs of the times has brought the learned and the unlearned into more familiar intercourſe than they had together before. They find themſelves obliged to converſe upon the ſame topics. The

ſubjects

ſubjects of modern hiſtory, policy, arts, manufactures, commerce, &c. are the general topics of all ſenſible converſation. Every thing is ſaid in our own tongue, little is even written in a foreign or dead language; and every Britiſh author is ſtudious of writing with propriety and elegance in his native Engliſh. Criticiſm, which was formerly the great buſineſs of a ſcholar's life, is now become the amuſement of a leiſure hour, and this but to a few; ſo that a hundredth part of the time which was formerly given to criticiſm and antiquity is enough, in this modernized age, to gain a man the character of a profound ſcholar. The topics of ſenſible converſation are likewiſe the favourite ſubjects of all the capital writings of the preſent age, which are read with equal avidity by Gentlemen, Merchants, Lawyers, Phyſicians, and Divines.

Now when the courſe of reading, thinking, and converſation, even among ſcholars, is become ſo very different from what it was, is it not reaſonable that the plan of ſcholaſtic education ſhould, in ſome meaſure, vary with it? The neceſſity of the thing has already, in many inſtances, forced a change, and the ſame increaſing neceſſity will either force a greater and more general change,

change, or we muſt not be ſurpriſed to find our ſchools, academies, and univerſities deſerted, as wholly unfit to qualify men to appear with advantage in the preſent age.

In many private ſchools and academies, we find ſeveral things taught, which were never made the ſubjects of ſyſtematical inſtruction in former times; and in thoſe of our univerſities in which it is the intereſt of the tutors to make their lectures of real uſe to their pupils, and where lectures are not mere matters of form; the profeſſors find the neceſſity of delivering themſelves in Engliſh. And the evident propriety of the thing muſt neceſſarily make this practice more general, notwithſtanding the moſt ſuperſtitious regard to eſtabliſhed cuſtoms.

But let the profeſſors conduct themſelves by what maxims they pleaſe, the ſtudents will, of courſe, be influenced by the taſte of the company they keep in the world at large, to which young gentlemen in this age have an earlier admiſſion than they had formerly. How can it be expected that the preſent ſet of ſtudents for Divinity ſhould apply to the ſtudy of the dead languages with the aſſiduity of their fathers and grandfathers, when they find ſo many of the uſes of thoſe languages no longer

er ſubſiſting? What can they think it will avail them to make the purity of the Latin ſtyle their principal ſtudy, for ſeveral years of the moſt improveable part of their life, when they are ſenſible, they ſhall have little more occaſion for it than other gentlemen, or than perſons in common life, when they have left the univerſity? And how can it be otherwiſe, but that their private reading and ſtudies ſhould ſometimes be different from the courſe of their public inſtructions, when the favourite authors of the public, the merits of whom they hear diſcuſſed in every company, even by their tutors themſelves, have written upon quite different ſubjects.

In ſuch a ſtate of things, the advantage of a regular ſyſtematical inſtruction in thoſe ſubjects, which are treated of in books that in fact engage the attention of all the world, the learned leaſt of all excepted, and which enter into all converſations, where it is worth a man's while to bear a part, or to make a figure, cannot be doubted. And I am of opinion, that theſe ſtudies may be conducted in ſuch a manner, as will interfere very little with a ſufficiently cloſe application to other ſtudies. Students for Phyſic and Divinity may be admitted to theſe ſtudies later then thoſe for whoſe real uſe in life

they are principally intended; not till they be ſufficiently grounded in their Claſſics, have ſtudied Logic, Oratory, and Criticiſm, or any thing elſe which may be deemed uſeful, previous to thoſe ſtudies which are peculiar to their reſpective profeſſions; and even then theſe new ſtudies may be made a matter of amuſement, rather than an article of buſineſs.

With reſpect to Divines, it ought moreover to be conſidered, that the ſame revolutions in the ſtate of knowledge, which call their attention to theſe new ſtudies have, in a great meaſure, furniſhed them with time for their application to them; by releaſing them from ſeveral ſubjects the ſtudy of which was formerly the great buſineſs of Divines, and engroſſed almoſt their whole time. And tho' new ſubjects have been ſtarted within the province of Divinity, it does not appear to me, that they require ſo much time and application as was uſually given to thoſe other ſtudies, the uſe of which is now ſuperſeded. I mean, principally, School-divinity, and the Canon law; not to mention Logic and Metaphyſics, which were formerly a more intricate buſineſs, and took up much more time than they do now.

LET a perſon but look over the table of contents to the works of Thomas Aquinas, which were read, ſtudied, or commented upon by all divines a few centuries ago, and he will be convinced, that it muſt have required both more acuteneſs to comprehend the ſubjects of them, and more time to ſtudy and digeſt them in any tolerable manner, than it would require to become exceedingly well verſed in all the branches of knowledge I would now reccommend.

THE Canon law was not leſs complex than both the common and ſtatute law of England, and every clergyman of eminence was under a neceſſity of underſtanding, not only the general principles and theory of that ſyſtem, but even the minutiæ of the practice. Good ſenſe, and a free acceſs to the ſcriptures have at length (aſſiſted, perhaps, by an averſion to abſtract ſpeculations) thrown down the whole fabric of School-divinity, and the riſe of the Civil above the Eccleſiaſtical power in this realm has reduced the theory and practice of the Engliſh Canon law within very narrow bounds. And as to the little which remains in uſe, very few clergymen need trouble themſelves about it.

IT is acknowledged, that the attention of ſtudents for divinity, and other learned

profeſſions is much engaged by mathematical and philoſophical ſtudies, which have been much cultivated of late years. I rejoice in ſo valuable an acceſſion to human ſcience, and would be far from ſhortening the time which is given to them in places of liberal education. I rather wiſh there were more room for thoſe ſtudies in ſuch places, and better proviſion for teaching them. But, notwithſtanding this, there is room enough for a ſmall portion of time and attention to be given to the ſubjects I would here recommend; and it is not much of either that I would plead for, in the caſe of gentlemen intended for the learned profeſſions.

The method in which thoſe lectures may be taught to the moſt advantage, I apprehend to be the following; and experience has in ſome meaſure formed my judgment in this caſe.

Let the lecturer have a pretty full text before him, digeſted with care, containing not only a method of diſcourſing upon the ſubjects, but all the principal arguments he adduces, and all the leading facts he makes uſe of to ſupport his hypotheſes. Let this text be the ſubject of a regular, but familiar diſcourſe, not exceeding an hour at a time; with a claſs not exceeding twenty, or thirty.

Let

Let the lecturer give his pupils all encouragement to enter occaſionally into the converſation, by propoſing queries, or making any objections or remarks which may occur to them. Let all the ſtudents have an opportunity of peruſing this text, if not of copying it, in the intervals between the lectures, and let near half of the time for lecturing be ſpent in receiving from the ſtudents a minute account of the particulars of the preceding lecture, and in explaining any difficulties they might have met with in it; in order that no ſubject be quitted, till the tutor be morally certain his pupils thoroughly underſtand it.

Upon every ſubject of importance, let the tutor make references to the principal authors who have treated of it; and if the ſubject be a controverted one, let him refer to books written on both ſides of the queſtion. Of theſe references, let the tutor occaſionally require an account, and ſometimes a written abſtract. Laſtly, let the tutor ſelect a proper number of the moſt important queſtions which can ariſe from the ſubject of the lectures, and let them be propoſed to the ſtudents as excerciſes, to be treated in the form of orations, theſes, or diſſertations, as he ſhall think fit. Moreover, if he judge it convenient, let him appoint

point rewards to thoſe young gentlemen who ſhall handle the ſubject in the moſt judicious manner.

YOUNG gentlemen deſigned for the learned profeſſions need not be put upon theſe exerciſes, or reading all the authors referred to. It may be ſufficient for them to attend the lectures as they are delivered. And as I would not adviſe, that the lectures be given with ſhorter intervals between them three days, they cannot interfere much with their application to their proper ſtudies.

I think I could aſſign very ſatisfactory reaſons for each of the directions I have laid down above, but I flatter myſelf they will ſuggeſt themſelves; if not upon the bare peruſal, at leaſt upon any attempt to reduce them to practice. I ſhall only take notice of an objection which may be made to one particular article in this method.

SOME may object to the encouragement I would give the ſtudents to propoſe objections at the time of lecturing. This cuſtom, they may ſay, will tend to interrupt the courſe of the lecture, and promote a ſpirit of impertinence and conceit in young perſons. I anſwer, that every inconvenience of this kind may be obviated by the manner in which a tutor delivers himſelf

himſelf in lecturing. A proper mixture of dignity and freedom (which are ſo far from being incompatible, that they mutually ſet off one another) will prevent or repreſs all impertinent and unſeaſonable remarks, at the ſame time that it will encourage thoſe which are modeſt and pertinent.

But ſuppoſe a lecturer ſhould not be able immediately to give a ſatisfactory anſwer to an objection, which might be ſtarted by a ſenſible ſtudent. A tutor muſt be conſcious of his having made very ridiculous pretenſions, and having given himſelf improper airs, if it give him any pain to tell his claſs, that he will reconſider a ſubject; or even to acknowledge himſelf miſtaken. It depends wholly upon a tutor's general diſpoſition, and his uſual manner of addreſs, whether he loſe, or gain ground in the eſteem of his pupils by ſuch a declaration. Every tutor ought to have conſidered the ſubjects on which he gives lectures with attention, but no man can be expected to be infallible. For my own part, I would not forego the pleaſure and advantage which accrue, both to my pupils and to myſelf, from this method, together with the opportunity it gives me of improving my lectures, by means of the many uſeful hints which are often ſtarted in this familiar

liar way of diſcourſing upon a ſubject, for any inconvenience I have yet found to attend it, or which I can imagine may poſſibly attend it.

I cannot help flattering myſelf, that were the ſtudies I have here recommended generally introduced, into places of liberal education, the conſequence might be happy and glorious for this country in ſome future period. Many of the political evils, under which this, and every country in the world labour, are not owing to any want of a love for our country, but to an ignorance of its real conſtitution and intereſts. Beſides the very circumſtance of giving that attention which I would recommend to its conſtitution, and intereſts would unavoidably beget a love and affection for them; and might, perhaps, contribute more to produce, propagate, and enflame a ſpirit of patriotiſm than any other circumſtance. And certainly, if there be the moſt diſtant proſpect of this valuable end being gained by an application to theſe ſtudies, it cannot fail to recommend them to every true lover of his country, in an age when the minds of ſo many are blinded and miſled by a ſpirit of faction; and, what is more alarming, when a taſte for luxury and expence is ſo high, that there is reaſon to fear it may, in many

caſes

caſes be ſuperior to all other regards, and when, in many breaſts, it already apparently threatens the utter extinction of a ſpirit of patriotiſm.

WHAT was it that made the Greeks, the Romans in early ages, and other nations of antiquity ſuch obſtinate patriots, that they had even no idea of any obligation ſuperior to a regard for their country, but that the conſtant wars they were obliged to maintain with the neighbouring nations kept the idea of their country perpetually in view, and always oppoſed to that of other nations? It is the ſame circumſtance which gives our common ſoldiers and ſeamen more of the genuine ſpirit of patriotiſm than is felt by any other order of men in the community, notwithſtanding they have the leaſt intereſt in it. Now the courſe of inſtruction I would introduce would bring the idea of our country more early into the minds of Britiſh youth, and habituate them to a conſtant and cloſe attention to it. And why ſhould not the practice of thinking, reading, converſing, and writing about the intereſt of our country anſwer the ſame purpoſe with the moderns, as fighting for it did among the ancients.

AND it is a circumſtance of particular conſequence, that this enthuſiaſtic love for

our country would by this means be imbibed by perſons of fortune, rank, and influence in whom it might be effectual to the moſt important purpoſes, who might have it in their power, not only to wiſh well to their country, but to render it the greateſt real ſervices. Such men would not only, as is the caſe with private ſoldiers or ſeamen, be able to employ the force of a ſingle arm only in its defence, but might animate the hearts, and engage the hands of thouſands in its cauſe. Of what unſpeakable advantage might be one miniſter of ſtate, one military commander, or even a ſingle member of parliament, who throughly underſtood the intereſts of his country, and who poſtponed every other intereſt and conſideration to it!

This is not teaching politics to low mechanics, and manufacturers, or encouraging the ſtudy of it among perſons with whom it could be of no ſervice to their country, and often a real detriment to themſelves; though we may ſee in thoſe perſons, how poſſible it is for the public paſſions to ſwallow up all the private ones, when the objects of them are kept frequently in view, and are much dwelt upon in the mind. The ſame zeal which is the ſubject of ridicule in perſons of no weight

or influence in the ſtate, would be moſt glorious and happy for their country in a more advantageous ſituation.

SOME may perphaps object to theſe ſtudies, as giving too much encouragement to that turn for politics, which they may think is already immoderate in the lower and middle ranks of men among us. But muſt not political knowledge be communicated to thoſe to whom it might be of real uſe, becauſe a fondneſs for the ſtudy might extend beyond its proper bounds, and be catched by ſome perſons who had better remain ignorant of it. Beſides, it ought to be conſidered, that how ridiculous ſo ever ſome may make themſelves by pretenſions to politics, a true friend of liberty will be cautious how he diſcourages a fondneſs for that kind of knowledge, which has ever been the favourite ſubject of writing and converſation in all free ſtates. Only tyrants, and the friends of arbitrary power ever took umbrage at a turn for political knowledge, and political diſcourſes among even the loweſt of the people. Men will ſtudy, and converſe about what they are intereſted in, eſpecially if they have any influence; and though the aſs in the fable was in no concern who was his maſter, ſince he could but carry his

uſual load, and though the ſubjects of a deſpotic monarch need not trouble themſelves about political diſputes and intrigues, which never terminate in a change of meaſures, but only of men; yet, in a free country, where even private perſons have much at ſtake, every man is nearly intereſted in the conduct of his ſuperiors, and cannot be an unconcerned ſpectator of what is tranſacted by them. With reſpect to influence, the ſentiments of the loweſt vulgar in England are not wholly inſignificant, and a wiſe miniſter will ever pay ſome attention to them.

It is our wiſdom, therefore, to provide that all perſons who have any influence in political meaſures be well inſtructed in the great and leading principles of wiſe policy. This is certainly an object of the greateſt importance. Inconveniences ever attend a general application to any kind of knowledge, and no doubt will attend this. But they are inconveniences which a friend to liberty need be under no apprehenſions about.

I may poſſibly promiſe myſelf too much, from the general introduction of the ſtudies I have recommended in this eſſay, in the places of liberal education; but a little enthuſiaſm is always excuſable in perſons who

who propoſe and recommend uſeful innovations. I have endeavoured to repreſent the ſtate of education in this view as clearly, and as fully as I have been able; and deſire my propoſals for emendations to have no more weight than the faireſt repreſentation will give them, in the minds of the cool and the unbiaſſed.

A SYLLABUS

A SYLLABUS OF A COURSE of LECTURES ON THE STUDY of HISTORY.

THE GENERAL DIVISION OF THE SUBJECT.

This courſe of lectures contains an account of,

I. THE general uſes of hiſtory.

II. THE ſources of hiſtory, with the principles on which paſt events may be aſcertained, and a particular illuſtration of Newton's Chronology.

III. WHAT is neceſſary or uſeful to be known previous to the ſtudy of hiſtory; including

including a ſummary of Chronology, and rules for eſtimating the riches and power of ſeveral nations, from the ſums of money mentioned in their hiſtories.

IV. DIRECTIONS for facilitating the ſtudy of hiſtory; including an account of ſeveral ingenious mechanical contrivances for this purpoſe.

V. THE order in which the moſt uſeful hiſtories may be read to the moſt advantage; including an account of all the capital ancient hiſtorians, and a more particular account of Engliſh hiſtorians, and Engliſh records.

VI. PROPER objects of attention to an hiſtorian; including the general principles of wiſe policy, and the theory of every thing which has contributed to the flouriſhing ſtate of nations.

VII. THE laſt article in this courſe is A GENERAL VIEW OF HISTORY CIVIL AND ECCLESIASTICAL, but for this, the author will at preſent make uſe of ſome of the compendiums of hiſtory recommended in the courſe of theſe lectures.

THE CONTENTS OF EACH PARTICULAR LECTURE.

LECTURE I. WHY Hiſtory is ſo generally pleaſing and intereſting.

intereſting. Hiſtory ſerves to amuſe the imagination and intereſt the paſſions. Advantage of hiſtory above fiction. It improves the underſtanding, and fits men for the buſineſs of life. Some advantages of hiſtory above experience. Peculiarly uſeful to princes. Facts eſſential to all knowledge. Political knowledge uſeful in every ſtation of life. Hiſtory frees the mind from many prejudices, and particularly national prejudices; but will confirm the attachment of a Briton to his country. The uſe of hiſtory to the ladies. All improvement in the ſcience of government derived from hiſtory.

LECTURE II. HISTORY tends to ſtrengthen the ſentiments of virtue: ſhown from the manner in which virtuous impreſſions are actually made upon the mind. Advantage of the ſtudy of hiſtory previous to a perſon's being introduced into the world. Why the repreſentations of hiſtorians are almoſt univerſally favourable to virtue. What kind of ſcenes hiſtory actually exhibits which are favourable to virtue. A view of the ſentiments and conduct of great men inſpires the mind with a taſte for ſolid glory and true greatneſs. Hiſtory enables us to form juſt ideas both of the ſtrength and weakneſs of human nature. Inſtances of both, with reflections.

LECTURE

LECTURE III. HISTORY tends to ſtrengthen the ſentiments of virtue by the variety of views in which it exhibits the conduct of Divine providence, ſhowing important events brought about by inconſiderable means, or contrary to the intention of thoſe perſons who were the principal agents in them. A regard to Divine providence heightens our ſatisfaction in reading hiſtory, and tends to throw an agreeable light upon the moſt gloomy and diſguſting parts of it. Hiſtory, in the miſfortunes and hardſhips to which the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſonages have been reduced, gives a deep conviction of the inſtability of all human things, prepares our minds to ſubmit to adverſity with reſignation, and makes us acquieſce in the more humble ſtations of life. Laſtly, the moſt common obſervations on the tempers and manners of men, ſuch as we may collect every day from common life, affect us much more ſtrongly when we ſee them exemplified in the hiſtory of great perſonages. At what age hiſtory ought to be read. In what ſenſe proper for every age.

LECTURE IV. OF the SOURCES of hiſtory. Importance of records. What have been the principal methods of tranſmitting to poſterity the knowledge of e-

vents, with the advantages and imperfections of each. Oral tradition. Dependent and independent evidence. their values eſtimated algebraically. To eſtimate the value of ſingle evidences. Hiſtorical examples. The corruption of tradition exemplified in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, and the ancient hiſtory of Egypt. Difference between ancient and modern times with reſpect to the communication of intelligence.

LECTURE V. Of Hiſtorical Poems. Thoſe of Homer and Oſſian. Public monuments with traditional explications. Hiſtorical cuſtoms. Hiſtorical names of perſons, countries and towns, &c. Monuments with emblematical, and alphabetical inſcriptions.

LECTURE VI. Of coins and medals. Their origin and uſe in Hiſtory. The principal information we receive from them. The progreſs of letters traced by their means. Addiſon's uſe of medals. Ancient and modern coins compared, with a view both to hiſtory and taſte. Of the origin and uſe of Heraldry.

LECTURE VII. The tranſition from public monuments to written hiſtories. Records and archives of ſtates. At what time chronology began to be attended to. Early methods of noting the intervals of time.

time. At what time the hiſtory of this weſtern part of the world begins to be credible. Ancient hiſtorians to be preferred who write of the events of their own times. Modern hiſtory beſt underſtood a conſiderable time after the events.

LECTURE VIII. OF THE INDIRECT METHODS OF COLLECTING THE KNOWLEDGE OF PAST EVENTS. The uſe of books not properly hiſtorical. The works of poets, and orators, and the remains of artiſts of all kinds. Difficulty of a writer's concealing his age and country from a ſagacious reader. The fictions of Annius of Viterbo. The hiſtorical uſe of Cicero's letters. Several inſtances of Newton's ſagacity in tracing events by means of connected circumſtances. Uſe of language to an hiſtorian, in tracing the number or degree of revolutions in a ſtate. How far any circumſtances in the language of a country may be a guide in judging of the original genius and manners of the people. Exemplified in the Hebrew and Roman tongues. A curious obſervation of Mr. Hume's on the uſe of correlative terms in languages. Of ſimplicity or refinement in languages.

LECTURE IX. CONNECTION of hiſtory and law. The ſtate of paternal and

filial affection among the Romans, as ſeen by the tenor of the civil law. Cuſtoms and general maxims of the ſame uſe as laws. Uſe of laws in tracing the original genius and manner of life of a people. Change in laws correſponding with a change of manners exemplified in the feudal ſyſtem in England. Simplicity or intricacy of law. Hale's inferences from a law of Canute's.

LECTURE X. The uſe of obſervations on the intervals between the generations of men and ſucceſſions of kings, to aſcertain the dates of paſt events. The antiquity of theſe methods of noting intervals of time. Fallacious method of computing by them. Eaſy correction of that fallacy: by which Newton has amended the chronology of ancient kingdoms and nations. The interval between the return of the Heraclidæ and the battle of Thermopylæ determined by ſucceſſions: the ſame interval aſcertained by generations. The time of the Argonautic expedition determined by two different courſes of generation. Extravagance of the Greek chronology. Improbable circumſtances in the commonly received chronology of Rome. The time of the ſiege of Troy comes to be the ſame, computing by ſucceſſions in Italy, and by ſucceſſions and generations in Greece.

And

And is agreeable to what Appian writes from the archives of Carthage.

LECTURE XI. The time of paſt events aſcertained by means of celeſtial appearances. The certainty of the method of computation by Eclipſes. A few ancient eclipſes enumerated. The uſe of them exemplified in the calculation of two ancient eclipſes, one of the ſun and another of the moon.

LECTURE XII. Of the uſe which Newton has made of obſervations on the preceſſion of the equinoxes in rectifying ancient chronology. The time of the Argonautic expedition determined by that means. The time of ſeveral ſubſequent events determined by the ſame means, in perfect conſiſtence with one another. A conjecture concerning the age of an old ſphere in the muſeum of the Farneſian palace. The age of Heſiod determined pretty nearly from his account of the heliacal riſing and ſetting of ſome ſtars. The uſe of the books of the Old Teſtament for rectifying the heathen chronology. The uſe it was of to Newton in particular.

LECTURE XIII. What is neceſsary or useful to be known previous to a study of history. Uſe of the ſciences derived from hiſtory to a ſtudent

dent of hiſtory. The knowledge of human nature. Philoſophical knowledge in general. Geography. Chronology. Diviſion of the day. The method of reckoning by weeks.

LECTURE XIV. Months, lunar and ſolar. Intercalation. Cycles. Old and new ſtyle. The ſolar cycle. Cycle of Indiction. Julian period, difference in beginning the year. Æra's or Epocha's. The Æra of Nabonaſſar. Of the Seleucidæ. Of the birth of Chriſt. Of the Hegira. Uſed formerly in Spain. Of the battle of Actium. Of Diocleſian. Yeſdejerd. Cautions in comparing them with one another.

LECTURE XV. Of the methods of eſtimating the riches and power of ancient and remote nations. Sources of miſtake on this ſubject. Change in the ſtandard of Coin. Upon what the price of commodities depends. Of the ſtate of Indoſtan. The proper data to aſcertain the proportion of money to commodities. Of the changes which the Grecian coins underwent. Of the proportion between ſilver, gold, and braſs in ancient times. Of the changes in the Roman coins. Of the proportion of money to commodities in different periods of the Grecian and Roman hiſtory

tory. Of the intereſt of money in Greece and at Rome.

LECTURE XVI. Of the Engliſh coins. Saxon and Norman coins compared. When gold and copper began to be coined by our kings. A table of all the changes in the value of Engliſh coins. Proportion between gold and ſilver in different periods of our hiſtory. Proportion between coin and commodities in different periods of our hiſtory. A table of all the changes of the French coin from the time of Charlemaigne. A general idea of the proportion it has, at different times, borne to commodities in France. Of the different rates of intereſt in Europe in different periods. The number and riches of a people to be conſidered in computing the proportional quantities of the money they raiſe.

LECTURE XVII. DIRECTIONS FOR FACILITATING THE STUDY OF HISTORY. Uſe of compendiums. The beſt epitome's of hiſtory. Mechanical methods which have been uſed to facilitate the ſtudy of hiſtory. Chronological tables. Character of different tables. Sturt's tables. Genealogical tables.

LECTURE XVIII. CHART of hiſtory. Chart of Biography. Grey's Memoria

ria Technica. The method of a common place-book for the purpoſe of hiſtory.

LECTURE XIX. The term of FORTIFICATION explained, by the help of a model of all its varieties cut in wood; to enable young gentlemen to underſtand modern hiſtory, and the news-papers, and to judge of the progreſs of a ſiege.

LECTURE XX. A regular progreſs in hiſtory pleaſing. The order in which ancient general hiſtories may moſt conveniently be read, ſo as to make them one continued ſeries of hiſtory; together with the character of the hiſtorians as they are mentioned, and an account of thoſe paſſages in other authors which may ſerve to enlarge the hiſtory of the ſeveral periods of which they treat. Of Herodotus.

LECTURE XXI. Of Thucydides. Xenophon. Diodorus Siculus. Quintus Curtius. Arrian. Juſtin. Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos.

LECTURE XXII. DIONYSIUS Halicarnaſſenſis. Livy. Polybius. Appian.

LECTURE XXIII. SALLUST. Cæſar. Hirtius. Dio Caſſius. Paterculus. Suetonius. Tacitus.

LECTURE XXIV. AURELIUS Victor. Herodian. Scriptores Romani. Eutropius. Zozimus. Zonaras. Jornandes.

nandes. Ammianus Marcellinus. Procopius. Agathias. Nicetas Acominatus. Nicephorus Gregoras. Johannes Cantacuzenus. Uſe of books of antiquities. Writers who have explained coins and inſcriptions. Uſe of a knowledge of the civil law. Of modern compilations of hiſtory. The univerſal hiſtory. Hooke's Roman hiſtory.

LECTURE XXV. Of the method of ſtudying the ENGLISH HISTORY. Original writers recommended. Gildas. Bede. Nennius. Hoel Dha's Laws. Geoffrey of Monmouth. Caradocus. Roman writers of Engliſh affairs. Their defects how ſupplied. Fulneſs of Engliſh hiſtory from the times of chriſtianity accounted for. Saxon records. Saxon Chronicle. Aſſer Menevenſis. Ethelward. Verſtegan. Sheringham. What foreign hiſtories are uſeful to a knowledge of the Engliſh affairs in early times. Of the Daniſh, Iſlandic, German, and Norwegian antiquities.

LECTURE XXVI. The Engliſh hiſtory from the conqueſt. Ingulfus of Croiland. Marianus Scotus. Florentius Bravonius. Eadmerus. William of Malmeſbury. Simeon of Durham. Ealred. Henry of Huntingdon. William of Newbery.

Gervaſe of Canterbury. Roger de Hoveden. Ralph de Diceto. Matthew Paris. Chronicle of Mailros. Thomas Wicks. Nicholas Trivet. Roger Ciſtrenſis. John Brompton. Walter of Hemmingford. Ralph Higden. John vicar of Tinmouth. Matthew of Weſtminſter. Henry Knighton. Froiſſart. Thomas of Walſingham. William Caxton. John Roſs.

LECTURE XXVII. ROBERT Fabian. Polidore Virgil. Edward Hall. Hollingſhead. Stow. Speed. Baker. Clarendon, Whitlocke, and Ludlow. Burnet. Rapin. Hume. Robertſon. Parliamentary hiſtory. Grey's Debates. Uſe of private letters, memorials, and other remains of men in public characters.

LECTURE XXVIII. HISTORIES of particular lives and reigns. Of William the Conqueror by William of Poictiers. Of Edward the II. by Thomas de la More. Of Henry V. by Titus Livius. Of Edward IV. by Haddington. Of Edward V. by Sir Thomas Moore. Of Henry VII. by Sir Francis Bacon. Of Henry VIII. by Lord Herbert of Cherbury. Edward VIth's own diary. Of Elizabeth by Camden, Lives written by Harris and others.

LECTURE XXIX. LIGHT thrown upon the civil hiſtory of England by the eccleſiaſtical

ɔleſiaſtical writers. Odericus Vitalis, &c. Burnet's hiſtory of the reformation. Cranmer's Memorials publiſhed by Strype. An acquaintance with the old Engliſh Law-books uſeful to an Engliſh hiſtorian. Cuſtumier de Normandy, Glanville. Bracton. Fleta. Hengham. Horn's Mirroir de Juſtice. Breton. Novæ Narrationes. Forteſcue de Laudibus legum Angliæ. Statham's Abridgement of Reports. Littleton and Coke. Doctor and Student. Fitzherbert de Natura Brevium. Year books, Reports, &c. Wood's Inſtitute.

LECEURE XXX. Of the English Records. Royal Proclamations. Diſpatches and inſtructions for foreign miniſters. Leagues, Treaties, and Memorials, &c. where to be found. Records of the old court of Chivalry. Agard's collections. Cotton's library. Records of foreign ſtates. Rymer's Fœdera. The green cloth. Acts of Parliament. Raſtal's Collections. Prynne's abridgement and others. Journals of both houſes. Summons of the nobility in Dugdale. Records in the courts of Weſtminſter. Diſpoſition of the records in the Tower.

LECTURE XXXI. The Petty-bag-office. The Maſter of the Rolls. Regiſ-

trum de Cancellaria. Lower Exchequer. The Pipe-office. The ſeveral Remembrancers. Doomſday book. The red book of the Exchequer. The black book. Teſta Nevilli. Records of the inferior Courts. Thoſe kept by the ſecretary of the Admiralty. The office of Ordnance. The libraries and muſeums of noblemen and private gentlemen. Uſe of the Britiſh muſeum. What records have been publiſhed. Formulare Anglicanum. Pedigrees of ancient families. Old accounts of expences and diſburſements in families. Ledger books, and other monaſtic records. Monaſticum Anglicanum by Dugdale. Notitia Monaſtica by Tanner. Univerſity Monuments. Hiſtoriola Oxonienſis. Wood's hiſtory and antiquities of Oxford. Black book of Cambridge. Lives of Engliſh writers by Leland and others. Regiſters in eccleſiaſtical courts.

LECTUE XXXII. HISTORIANS of other Nations. Where accounts of them are to be looked for. What ſufficient for an Engliſhman. Henault's hiſtory of France. Uſe of the Univerſal hiſtory. Thuanus. Guiciardin. Davila. Voltaire.

LECTURE XXXIII. THE MOST IMPORTANT OBJECTS OF ATTENTION TO A READER

A READER OF HISTORY. Different objects to different perſons. An acquaintance with the hiſtory of our own country uſeful to perſons in all ranks of life. Peculiar uſe of Biography. Biographia Britannica, and other Biographical writings. We ought particularly to attend to the connection of cauſe and effect in all the changes of human affairs. What prejudices to be more particularly guarded againſt. Aſcribing too much, or too little to general, or particular cauſes; too many, or too few cauſes. Inconveniences of both.

LECTURE XXXIV. GENERAL obſervations on political meaſures. When perſonal conſiderations may be ſuppoſed to influence public meaſures and when not. Difference between the true, and the declared motives to tranſactions, wars &c. All juſt reaſoning on the connection of cauſe and effect capable of being reduced to practice. Periods of hiſtory more particularly worthy of attention. The connection of Sacred and Prophane Hiſtory. The ſucceſſion of the four monarchies. Hiſtory of the Grecian commonwealths, why intereſting, and what to be learned from it.

LECTURE XXXV. The riſe and declenſion of the Roman empire. What inſtruction

inſtruction it affords. The Settlement of the Northern nations in the diſmembered provinces of the Roman empire, with their original laws and cuſtoms, as the foundation of the preſent European governments. What circumſtances contributed to render the hiſtory of Europe from the cloſe of the 15th century vaſtly more intereſting, and more deſerving of attention than before. The time when the hiſtory of Spain begins to be intereſting to the reſt of Europe. The ſame with reſpect to France. The northern crowns. Ruſſia. Pruſſia. Into what parts the whole period from the cloſe of the 15th Century to the preſent times may be divided. What are the moſt ſtriking objects of attention in other parts of the world, in the interval between the irruption of the Northren barbarians and the cloſe of the 15th century. The hiſtory of Aſia. And of Germany.

LECTURE XXXVI. The moſt remarkable periods in the Engliſh hiſtory. When the hiſtory of Scotland begins to be intereſting. The moſt intereſting periods in the hiſtory of literature and the arts, from the earlieſt antiquity to the preſent time.

LECTURE XXXVII. The moſt important periods in the hiſtory of COMMERCE pointed out. Every thing worthy of

of attention in hiſtory which contributes to make a nation happy, populous, or ſecure. GOVERNMENT an eſſential article. Nature and objects of civil government, ſimple or complex. Various forms of it.

LECTURE XXXVIII. Reaſons for the prevalence of Deſpotiſm in early times. Advantages of monarchy. Diſadvantages of it. What circumſtances make the ſituation of a people moſt happy in deſpotic ſtates. What circumſtances always more or leſs controll deſpotiſm. Attachment of ſome nations to deſpotiſm.

LECTURE XXXIX. Advantages of Democracy. Connection of liberty and ſcience. Situation of republics with reſpect to defence. Severity of manners in republics. Severe puniſhments dangerous. The true ſupports of republican government. Danger of luxury. Equality of fortunes. Exorbitant power in magiſtrates dangerous. Number of voters.

LECTURE XL. Ariſtocracy how different from deſpotiſm. What depends upon the number of its members. Libels peculiarly obnoxious in this government. In what reſpects the preſent European monachies differ from the ancient monarchies. Their riſe. Peculiar advantage of them. Nobility. Theſe governments promiſe

promiſe to be laſting. Different ſituation of the female ſex in theſe governments and thoſe which are deſpotic. The nature of the Roman government. The happineſs of having the order of ſucceſſion in monarchies fixed. What form of government is moſt proper for extenſive empire. How the extremes of liberty and deſpotiſm approach. Of the diſtribution of different powers in a ſtate. What preſerved the Roman republic ſo long.

LECTURE XLI. How much government under any of theſe forms is preferable to a ſtate of barbariſm. Refinement in men's ideas keeping pace with improvements in government. The European governments, (and particularly the Engliſh) traced from their firſt riſe in the woods of Germany to their preſent form. The conſtitution of the ancient German ſtates. State of their armies. Diviſion of the conquered lands. Upon what terms held. How feuds became hereditary. How the Clergy became an eſſential part of the ſtate. Upon what terms the great Lords diſpoſed of their lands. Taxes of the feudal times. Power of a Lord over his vaſſals. Why allodial eſtates became converted into feudal. When this took place in England.

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The method of adminiſtering juſtice. Where the ſupreme power was lodged.

LECTURE XLII. In what circumſtances the Feudal ſyſtem acquired ſtrength. The violence and inſecurity of thoſe times. Inconſiſtent with commerce. Ballance of power in thoſe times. Wager of battle. Private confederacies. Knight-Errantry. Cauſes of the decline of the Feudal ſyſtem. Expenſive wars. Progreſs in the arts. Improvements in the art of war.

LECTURE XLIII. Rise of Corporations. Greater and leſſer Barons. State of land property and the alienation of it. When, and by what means the great blow was given to the Feudal ſyſtem by the diminution of the power of the greater barons in different parts of Europe. The riſe of the Engliſh Commons. The Declenſion of the ſyſtem not equal in all parts of Europe. Not the ſame in Scotland as in England. The reaſons of it. The remains of it at preſent in different parts of Europe, and with us. General obſervations on the progreſs and termination of the Feudal ſyſtem.

LECTURE XLIV. The expences of government. How moderate taxes operate. Exorbitant taxes. Taxes upon poſſeſſions or conſumptions. Their differ-

ent advantages and diſadvantages. A Poll-tax, in what circumſtances moſt tolerable. By whom a tax upon conſumptions ſhould be paid. Taxes upon exports. Farmers of taxes. National debts.

LECTURE XLV. Of LAWS. Simple or complex ſyſtems of law. Lenity or ſeverity of laws. Sanctions of laws. Connection of laws. Who ſhould be proſecutors. Who judges. Object of laws. Inquiſition. Certainty of laws, Maxims and forms of law. Laws defeating their own end.

LECTURE XLVI. The theory of the progreſs of law, exemplified in the hiſtory of the criminal law. And in the progreſs of men's ideas and of laws concerning property. Hiſtory of laws. Profeſſion of law. Force of cuſtom.

LECTURE XLVII. The influence of RELIGION on civil ſociety. In what circumſtances it has the greateſt force. The uſe of it in ſtates. Advantages reſulting from Chriſtianity in Europe. buſes of religion. Toleration and perſecution. In what circumſtances moſt violent. The connection of modes of religion with forms of government. The encroachment of the eccleſiaſtical upon the civil power. How prevented. What makes

makes men more attached to one religion than to another.

LECTURE XLVIII. THE influence of PHILOSOPHY on civil affairs. The influence of the different ſects of the Greek philoſophy upon ſtateſmen and their meaſures in ancient hiſtory. Neceſſity of an attention to AGRICULTURE. How beſt encouraged. Bounties. Public granaries. Mutual influences of agriculture and commerce. Circumſtances attending the imperfection of agriculture. Imperfect ſtate of it in England a few centures ago.

LECTURE XLXIX. IN what manner ARTS AND MANUFACTURES increaſe the power of a ſtate. Importance of encouraging labour. Vaſt advantage of manufactures. particularly to England. The ſociety for the encouragement of arts, manufactures and commerce. The connection between Science and the Arts. On what circumſtances a taſte for ſcience depends. The conſequences of interruptions in ſcience. The uſual decline of the arts after they have been brought pretty near perfection. Why ſcience is not ſo apt to decline.

LECTURE L. THE advantage of COMMERCE to a ſtate. Its effects upon the minds of men. Active and paſſive

commerce. What is the moſt advantageous kind of commerce. Of Fiſheries. The importation of unwrought materials. The gain of the merchants and of the country compared. Ballance of trade. Influence of commerce on the value of land. And vice verſa. Interfering of the legiſlature in commerce. The Navigation-act. Reſtrictions upon commerce. Companies. Alienation of land. Loſs of commerce by perſecution.

LECTUE LI. Use of Colonies to a commercial ſtate. Difference between ancient and modern colonies. Importance of our American colonies. The entire ſubſerviency of a colony to the mother country. The ſituation of Ireland. Unreaſonable jealouſy of it .The Iſle of Man. Uniformity of weights and meaſures. Maxims with reſpect to money. Of the nature of exchange. In what caſes a great quantity of money is uſeful or hurtful to a ſtate, and how the increaſe of it operates to produce an improved ſtate of ſociety.

LECTURE LII. Of the intereſt of money: How its riſe or fall is influenced by the ſtate of commerce. Of Paper-money. Paper-credit. State of the North American colonies in this reſpect. The fluctuating nature of commerce exemplifi-

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ed as a motive to attend to and improve our commerce. Benefits which have ariſen from unſucceſsful attempts to extend commerce.

LECTURE LIII. THE conſequences of a flouriſhing ſtate of ſociety deduced. What kinds of luxury are hurtful. How far the country in which luxury prevails is hereby rendered incapable of ſelf-defence or the contrary. The temper of mind in luxurious and barbarous ages compared. The miſchiefs of idleneſs. The ſtate of virtue in the earlier and later periods of moſt hiſtories. Effects of large capital cities. The dreadful conſequence of a total depravity of manners. Gaming. Education.

LECTURE LIV. THE Importance of an attention to leſſer things than thoſe diſcourſed of above. Influence of POLITENESS in a ſtate. Manners of the ancients. What form of government is moſt favourable to politeneſs, ſtate of diverſions among the Greeks and Romans. The influence of the practice of domeſtic ſlavery on the minds of the ancients. Manners of the Feudal times. The riſe and progreſs of politeneſs in Europe. The conſequence of a free intercourſe between the ſexes. The reaſon of the high diſtinction with which the female ſex is treated in Europe. How far the

the laws which regulate the treatment of women depend upon the climate of countries. Treatment of women in the Eaſt, among the Greeks, Romans, and barbarous nations.

LECTURE LV. Of the FOOD, the DRESS, and the HABITATIONS of the human ſpecies. The importance of attending to their gradual improvement. The great ſuperiority of the moderns to the ancients in a variety of reſpects mentioned.

Of the POPULOUSNESS of nations. The influence of good laws and government. Eaſy naturalization. What uſe of land will enable the people to ſubſiſt in the greateſt numbers upon it. Circumſtances by which to judge of the populouſneſs of ancient nations. How trade and commerce make a nation populous. Equal diviſion of lands. When machines to facilitate labour are uſeful, and when hurtful.

LECTURE LVI. GRAZING formerly deſtructive to populouſneſs in England. Incloſures when hurtful, and when uſeful. Neceſſity of induſtry. Of frugality. A taſte for expenſive living how hurtful to Rome in the Auguſtan age, and to us at preſent. Reaſon of the populouſneſs of China. Matrimony. Polygamy. The conſequence of a ſudden diminution of the numbers of

a people. Of monaſteries and nunneries. Influence of religion on the populouſneſs of a country. The Populouſneſs of ancient and modern nations compared. Methods of eaſily computing the numbers of people in a country.

LECTURE LVII. WHAT makes a nation SECURE. Natural ramparts. Advantage of an iſland. Importance of weapons. The alteration which the invention of gunpowder has made in the art of war. Reaſon why the firſt effects of it were not more ſenſible in Europe. Difference in the methods of fortification, and fighting at ſea of the ancients and moderns. The importance of diſcipline. Inconvenience of the feudal militia. What makes modern wars ſo extremely expenſive. The riſe of ſtanding armies in Europe. Why a nation is formidable after a civil war. The great military power of ancient nations accounted for. In what ſenſe populouſneſs contributes to make a nation ſtrong and ſecure.

LECTURE LVIII. OF confederacies. The balance of power in ancient and modern times. The conduct of different nations in extending and ſecuring their conqueſts. The Roman policy in war particularly noticed. The neceſſity of perſonal courage.

courage. Influence of liberty. The reaſon of ſome inſtances of deſperate valour in ancient times. The difference between the proportion of officers and their pay in ancient and modern times explained. The danger of employing mercenaries. Of buying off wars.

LECTURE LIX. A capacity of bearing the fatigues of war: more requiſite in the ancient manner of fighting. The advantage of poor nations over the rich. Why invaders have generally more courage than the invaded. The influence of opinion upon courage. The influence of religious ſentiments. Effects of violent perſonal hatred. Civil wars peculiarly bloody. Cauſes of Factions, duration of them, eaſily propagated in free governments. Dreadful effects of faction. The unfortunate ſituation of the Greek empire. Obſervations on the different durations of empires.

LECTURE LX. THE hiſtorian directed to attend to whatever contributes to the improvement of USEFUL SCIENCE. Changes in the face of the earth. The Abbe de Bos's obſervation on the air of Italy. Changes with reſpect to the fertility of ſeveral countries, to what they are owing. Rivers which have changed their courſe.

Whatever

Whatever tends to make us better acquainted with HUMAN NATURE to be particularly attended to. In what reſpect hiſtory may aſſiſt us to correct the errors of a theory drawn from experience. Of NATIONAL CHARACTERS, whether depending upon climate, or other cauſes. VARIETIES AMONG MANKIND, in their moral ſentiments, in the make of the human body, the different diſeaſes to which men have been ſubject. The different vices which have prevailed in different ages. An attention to LANGUAGE recommended.

LECTURE LXI. AN attention to DIVINE PROVIDENCE IN THE CONDUCT OF HUMAN AFFAIRS recommended. The uſe of theſe obſervations in demonſtrating the divine attributes. Compariſon of this proof with that from the works of nature. Theſe reſearches cleared from the charge of preſumption. Great caution recommended. Methods and maxims of proceeding in theſe enquiries. Evidence of the ſtate of the world having been improved, and marks of its being in a progreſs towards further improvement: conſidered here only with reſpect to PERSONAL SECURITY and PERSONAL LIBERTY. The ſtate of perſonal ſecurity in Greece, Rome, and the feudal times of Europe, compared with

the ſtate of things at preſent. Number of ſlaves in ancient times, and during the prevalence of the feudal ſyſtem.

LECTURE LXII. THE gradual advancement of RELIGIOUS KNOWLEDGE to be attended to, particularly in the propagation of CHRISTIANITY, and the circumſtances attending the Reformation. Objection to the goodneſs of God from the ſtate of WAR mankind have generally been in. War has always borne a leſs proportion to peace than we are apt to imagine. Reflections upon the ſlain in battle. How far the calamities of war extend. The benefit accruing to mankind from their diſpoſition to hoſtility. Mankind would have been in a worſe ſituation without it, and the wars which have ſprung from it, argued from general principles. The particular uſe of war ſhown in ſeveral caſes. Religion, liberty, and the ſciences have often been promoted by war.

LECTURE LXIII. BENEFICIAL effects of CONQUESTS. Made with the moſt eaſe where they are the moſt wanted. Benefits accruing to barbarous nations from conquering civilized ones, or from being conquered by them. The world a gainer by the Roman conqueſts, exemplified in ſeveral countries. Examples of men doing more good by their death than by their lives,

lives. Advantages reſulting from the feudal wars, from the abuſes of Popery. Moral maxims of conduct deduced from our obſervations of the Divine Being producing good by means of evil.

TOGETHER with the ſtudy of hiſtory, I would adviſe, that more attention be given to GEOGRAPHY than I believe is generally given to it; particularly to that branch of it which may with propriety, be called COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY exhibiting the ſtate of the world with reſpect to commerce, pointing out the moſt advantageous ſituations for carrying it on; and more eſpecially, noting thoſe articles, in the natural hiſtory of countries which are, or may be, the proper ſubjects of commerce.

THIS branch of knowledge is, indeed, as yet very much confined. We are probably ſtrangers to ſome of the moſt uſeful productions of the earth on which we live: but a general attention once excited to the ſubject, by teaching it to youth in all places of liberal education, would be the beſt proviſion for extending it. Then, gentlemen, in their voyages and travels, would have their attention more ſtrongly engaged to every thing that ap-

peared new or curious. Alſo merchants, and captains of ſhips, would not neglect to bring home ſpecimens of a variety of articles, beſides thoſe which were the principal object of their voyage.

A KNOWLEDGE of CHEMISTRY is abſolutely neceſſary to the extenſion of this uſeful branch of ſcience. And it is a pleaſing proſpect to thoſe who wiſh well to the flouriſhing ſtate of commerce, that chemiſtry has, of late years, been more generally attended to than ever, and that it is daily introduced into more places of liberal education. What loſers men may be for want of commercial Geography, and of Chemiſtry, as a foundation for it, may be conceived from a variety of caſes. Without ſome knowledge of this kind, a man might for inſtance be digging for the ore of a baſer metal, and overlook another of much more value, which might lie in his way. So great an advantage might he miſs for want of knowing ſuch ores. And it is more than probable, that the countries to which we trade for articles of ſmall account are capable of furniſhing us with commodities of much greater value, and will be found to do it, as ſoon as our attention is ſufficiently awake to diſcover them.

THE

THE INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS TO THE COURSE of LECTURES ON THE HISTORY of ENGLAND.

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GENTLEMEN,

AFTER having recommended to you the ſtudy of GENERAL HISTORY, and given you the beſt aſſiſtance I was able for that purpoſe, I would now recommend to your more particular attention THE HISTORY OF YOUR NATIVE COUNTRY. In

the ſubject of the former courſe of lectures you were intereſted as men, in the preſent courſe, as Britons, and Engliſhmen. A knowledge of general hiſtory will enable you to account for preſent appearances in the world in general, but you muſt look into the annals of your own country to account for what you ſee at home; and without this hiſtorical knowledge, every news paper of daily occurrences will, in fact, be unintelligible to you.

An ordinary reader, indeed, is completely ſatisfied when he ſees in the papers, a detail of foreign events and domeſtic occurrences; what battles have been fought, or what alliances have been formed; who is in, and who is out in the public offices of ſtate, &c. In general, the bulk of mankind are content with ſeeing how things are, without looking far into the cauſes or conſequences of things.

But a philoſopher is not ſatisfied without endeavouring to ſee things, as much as poſſible, in all their connections and relations. He wiſhes to ſee how the preſent ſtate of things aroſe out of the preceeding, till he have traced the conſtitution, privileges, powers, and all the advantages of his country to the earlieſt accounts of them:

and

and then, by comparing things of a ſimilar nature, he may hope to be able to form a judgment of the probable conſequences of things.

Besides, it is only a knowledge how things were actually brought to the ſtate in which they now are, that can enable us to judge how they may be improved. Thus our knowledge of the wrong ſteps which have been taken in conducting our commerce, agriculture, &c. may teach us how to avoid them; and when we ſee the beſt ſchemes laid fairly open to examination, we may ſee how they might have been amended. And he is certainly a bad citizen, who hath leiſure to make himſelf maſter of the hiſtory of his country, whence ſuch lights may be received, and yet neglects ſo uſeful a branch of knowledge.

For the political knowledge of no perſon, in a country, the conſtitution of whoſe government is ſo free as that of ours, needs to be merely ſpeculative. Every man who has connections has influence, by means of which, he may, in proportion to the importance of his character (to which knowledge gives great weight) bring his theories, more or leſs, into practice. Nor is there the leaſt occaſion for any man to go, like a knight-errant, out of his own

province, or quit his proper ſphere of life to do this. Beſides, I am not now addreſſing myſelf to low mechanics, who have no time to attend to ſpeculations of this nature, and who had perhaps, better remain ignorant of them; but to young gentlemen, who now have leiſure for ſtudying the hiſtory and intereſts of their country, and who will not want opportunity to recommend ſchemes of public utility, or influence to aſſiſt in carrying them into execution.

Opportunities, of converſation, at leaſt every gentleman of a liberal education, or genteel fortune has, with men who are at or near the helm of affairs; and theſe are what no perſon, who has the intereſt of his country at heart, will neglect to improve for its advantage.

But a knowledge of the hiſtory of our country is, certainly, of more immediate uſe to thoſe perſons who may he called to bear an active part in its civil or military tranſactions; to thoſe who ſtand fair for being called to aſſiſt or preſide in its councils, direct its force, or to perform any thing which will probably enter into the hiſtory of their country. As every man's particular conduct in thoſe departments is only a part, and a continuation of a ſeries of

counſels

counſels, and of a train of exploits, which began before he was born, all the parts of which are ſtrictly connected, in an infinite variety of ways; it is evident, that no ſucceeding part, ſuch as every perſon muſt now act, can be well conducted without a regard to the preceding parts.

How ill qualified, for inſtance, would any military commander be to conduct a future war againſt France, who was wholly unacquainted with the conduct of the laſt war; when every new expedition and ſtratagem would, neceſſarily, have ſome kind of reference to, or be guided by, a view to a former expedition or ſtratagem. But the laſt war could not be underſtood without ſome knowledge of thoſe preceding it. In this manner we might argue the neceſſity of, at leaſt, a general knowledge of the whole of the Engliſh hiſtory to every Engliſh commander.

But the knowledge of hiſtory is ſtill more evidently neceſſary to a miniſter of ſtate. For every treaty which is made with any foreign power, and every meaſure which is taken with reſpect to it, muſt neceſſarily be adapted to the preceding tranſactions of every kind with the ſame nations. Perhaps a ſtill more intimate acquaintance with the hiſtory of our country

try may be neceſſary to every perſon who is concerned in enacting or adminiſtering our laws.

Even the conduct of a Divine, whether of the eſtabliſhment or a non conformiſt, muſt, in many particulars, be directed by a knowledge of the hiſtory of his country both eccleſiaſtical and civil. And the like is neceſſary or uſeful to every inhabitant of the country. Beſides what more inviting ſubject of contemplation can a recluſe perſon make choice of, than to trace the revolutions in church and ſtate which his own country has undergone, to enter into the cauſes of them, and ſee the manner of their operation.

It is with the paſt and the preſent ſtate of your own country, Gentlemen, that I ſhall, in the courſe of lectures we are now entering upon, endeavour to bring you acquainted. I have ſhown you already, in a former courſe, what are the authentic ſources from which the hiſtory of our country is derived, in a ſuccinct account of the moſt important of our ancient hiſtories, law-books, and records of all kinds: I ſhall now endeavour to give you an example of the uſe you may make of your collections from theſe materials, by exhibiting under each reign, or at ſome convenient periods, the

the ſucceſſive ſtate of every thing which has already been pointed out to you as a proper object of attention in your reading of hiſtory; ſo that you may diſtinctly ſee every important change they have undergone, from the earlieſt accounts of things to the preſent time.

And great pleaſure, I cannot help promiſing myſelf, and you, Gentlemen, in tracing the ſecurity, the commerce, the power, and all the great advantages of our country, from their firſt rude beginnings, and through all the violences of the feudal times, to the preſent glorious age.

Not to forget however that we are citizens of the world at large, I ſhall, at proper periods, note all the great revolutions which have taken place in it, and be more particular in the notice I ſhall take of foreign events, in proportion as (upon the extenſion of European politics in later ages) our affairs have become more connected with them: though I propoſe to touch upon all political events but ſlightly, referring you, for that article of information, to the hiſtories which are already publiſhed, and be more particular than any other hiſtorians have been upon every other great object of attention.

THE

THE

PLAN of the COURSE of LECTURES

ON THE

HISTORY of ENGLAND.

THE method in which I have thought proper to explain the hiſtory of England is, to divide the whole into ſeparate periods, and to digeſt all the materials relating to each under certain important heads, pretty much in the manner of Gordon's geographical grammar. A regular ſyllabus need not be given of the whole of this courſe, becauſe it is not one ſubject, but a ſeries of ſubjects, each of which is treated

treated in ſimilar manner; ſo that the plan of one period is the ſame with the plan of any other.

THE reaſon which determined me to make choice of this method was its diſtinctneſs, and the eaſe with which it may be conſulted. If any perſon want to ſee the ſtate of arts, agriculture, commerce, &c. for any particular reign in the general hiſtories of England, a great deal of time is often loſt in looking for it, or even before one can find whether the author has attended to it or not: whereas, in this method, as every thing is claſſed under its proper head, it is ſeen, in a moment, what was the ſtate of any article we are enquiring about in any particular reign. And it is likewiſe perfectly eaſy to trace the progreſs of it, from the earlieſt to the lateſt times, without the leaſt confuſion or interruption, as the account of every article is kept as unmixed as poſſible with any thing foreign to it. Thus, it will be equally eaſy for a ſtudent, who has this work before him, to get a clear idea of the ſtate of every thing worth attending to in any reign, in its actual connections with every other object of attention; or, without taking in the whole at once, he may trace the hiſtory of any particular article,

as

as of our conſtitution, arts, laws, language, commerce &c. in its ſeparate progreſs.

BESIDES, an hiſtorian who collects materials for hiſtory is leſs likely to omit any thing of importance, when he has all his heads of enquiry before him, digeſted in a regular manner; and for want of this method, expreſs or concealed, many important articles are wholly omitted in our largeſt hiſtories.

ANOTHER important uſe of a hiſtory of England digeſted in this method, to ſtudents, will be its ſerving as a common-place-book of Engliſh hiſtory with the principal heads, and the chief materials under each head digeſted before hand, as a foundation for their own collections, whenever they may have opportunity and leiſure to make any.

THIS is, likewiſe, the beſt method for a ſupplement to all our general hiſtories. For this purpoſe, I have made the detail of political events pretty ſhort; generally an abridgement of Rapin; but the account of every thing relating to the internal ſtate of the nation, I have been able to make much fuller than it is given in any other hiſtory.

As ſome periods, or reigns, are much ſhorter then others, it cannot be expected that

that all the heads I have made uſe of ſhould occur in every one of them. In a ſhorter period a more general head is choſen; whereas in larger periods, particularly when any article underwent a remarkable revolution, it will be found branched out into its proper ſubdiviſions. In ſome reigns many of the articles may not occur at all; but then the ſtate of thoſe articles for that time may be found in the reigns before or after it, where they next occur. For many of the heads do not only contain an account of the ſtate of an article for that particular time, but give a general idea how it ſtood in former times, and how long it continued in the ſame ſtate, with a ſhort view of its ſubſequent changes; before thoſe changes be related in their proper place, with all their cauſes, circumſtances, and conſequences

THE heads which moſt uſually occur in every period, or reign of importance are the following.

EVENTS.
RELIGION AND CHURCH HISTORY.
GOVERNMENT.
-----CIVIL.
-----MILITARY.
OFFICERS in the Government.
PEERAGE.

PEERAGE.
PARLIAMENT.
CONSTITUTION, or the balance of power in the ſeveral orders of the ſtate.
LAWS, including the general ſtate of Law, ſhewing our gradual removal from a ſtate of barbariſm.
ADMINISTRATION OF LAW, compriſing the hiſtory of the courts of law.
FEUDAL SYSTEM.
TENURES.
---------- MILITARY.
---------- SOCCAGE.
FRUITS OF TENURES.
DESCENT of LANDS.
ALIENATION of land property.
---------- involuntary, with the hiſtory of perſonal execution.
---------- voluntary.
---------- teſtamentary.
ENTAILS.
FORMS OF CONVEYANCE.
CORPORATIONS.
CRIMINAL LAW.
TRIALS.
PUBLIC GRIEVANCES.
SECURITY.
AGRICULTURE.
MINES.
COMMODITIES.

ARTS.

ARTS.
MANUFACTURES.
INLAND TRADE.
FOREIGN COMMERCE.
SHIPPING.
RICHES, LUXURY, &c.
PUBLIC WORKS.
LONDON.
NUMBER OF INHABITANTS.
FOOD.
DRESS.
CONVENIENCES.
---------- in houſes.
---------- cities.
---------- roads, &c.
LANGUAGE.
LETTERS.
LEARNING.
EDUCATION.
MANNERS.
SENTIMENTS.
WAR.
------ ARMY.
------ NAVY.
CUSTOMS.
TITLES EMBLEMS OF ROYALTY, COURT OFFICERS, &c.
DIVERSIONS.
COIN, AND THE COMPUTATION OF MONEY.

PRICE OF PROVISIONS.
REVENUE.
TAXES, FUNDS, &c.
MISCELLANEOUS EVENTS.
GREAT MEN WHO FLOURISHED IN THE PERIOD.
FOREIGN EVENTS.

BESIDES theſe titles, which occur in almoſt every reign, there are others which are convenient only in particular periods. And, to prevent confuſion, every occaſional article is claſſed under its proper head, though it occur ever ſo ſeldom, or but once in the whole hiſtory. The occaſional heads are ſuch as theſe. NAME. ORIGIN. DISTRIBUTION OF LANDS. SUCCESSION TO THE CROWN. PERSONS. IRELAND. SCOTLAND, &c. &c. &c.

AT the end of every diſtinct period, it is uſeful to exhibit to the ſtudents of Engliſh hiſtory a view of the ſtate of empires for that period, in the CHART OF HISTORY; and, in the CHART OF BIOGRAPHY, the ſtate of important lives for the ſame. But to exhibit the ſtate of hiſtory in this mechanical manner to the moſt perfection, the chart of hiſtory muſt be drawn over again, upon a new and a more perfect plan. Time muſt be repreſented in

in it as flowing uniformly, in the ſame direction, and with the ſame velocity with which it is made to flow in the Chart of Biography. The lecturer ſhould by all means, draw one out in this manner for the uſe of his claſs. The chart of hiſtory already publiſhed is excellent for the firſt production of the kind, but will make a falſe impreſſion upon the imagination, and miſlead the conception of young perſons, if it be not reformed in the manner here deſcribed.

THE

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS

TO THE

COURSE of LECTURES

ON THE

LAWS of ENGLAND.

****

GENTLEMEN,

MAN is a being endowed with various powers, by which he is fitted for extenſive connections, and conſequently, for various and extenſive obligations. Moreover, the greater perfection we attain to, that is, the more we riſe above the

the brutes, and the more exalted happineſs we are capable of, the more complex, we may truly ſay, doth our internal frame grow; and, at the ſame time, the more extenſive, and the more intimate are the connections we are capable of forming with other beings. Conſequently, the more important is our conduct in ſo critical a ſituation, and the more attentive doth it behove us to be to every circumſtance belonging to it.

It is our great happineſs and advantage, that, complex as our ſituation in life is, we have faculties capable of comprehending it in all its important relations, and of deriving the greateſt benefit from it. But ſtill theſe great advantages we cannot reap, unleſs we carefully conſider our ſituation, and ſedulouſly endeavour to accommodate ourſelves to it.

If we conſider any particular ſtation in life, as that of a Magiſtrate, a Phyſician, a General, &c. we ſhall immediately ſee, that it is impoſſible, either to diſcharge the duties, or enjoy the advantages of it, without thoroughly underſtanding it. And this maxim is equally true, whether it be applied to thoſe ſituations which are peculiar to ſome men, or to thoſe which are common to great numbers of mankind, or

even to the whole human race. Nay the more comprehenſive is the capacity in which we view ourſelves, the greater number of our fellow creatures we ſee in the ſame ſituation with ourſelves, the more important are the duties which reſult from that ſituation, and the more it behoves us to ſtudy and attend to them. Thus the duties incumbent on us as men, and which oblige the whole human race, are the great duties of ſocial morality, the violation of which is a crime of the moſt heinous nature, and has the moſt fatal conſequences. For the ſame reaſon, the duties which we owe to the community of which we are members are greater, and a violation of them draws after it more dreadful conſequences, than a neglect of the duties of more contracted and private connections: as theſe are of more importance, and ſtronger obligation than the duties which, Moraliſts ſay, we owe only to ourſelves.

To apply theſe obſervations to the purpoſe for which I have introduced them. We find ourſelves members of a civil ſociety, in which our ſituation obliges us to have a conſtant intercourſe with great numbers of our fellow creatures, and the rules of this intercourſe were eſtabliſhed long before we came into the world.

Moreover,

Moreover, the nature of things is ſuch, that there is a neceſſity of obliging every member of the ſtate to conform to the preeſtabliſhed rules of it, whether he approve of them or not, or even whether he know them or not. And in ſuch an advanced and highly improved ſtate of ſociety, as that to which the inhabitants of Great Britain are arrived, theſe rules or laws muſt be very numerous and complex: alſo many of them muſt needs be very arbitrary, as well as complex, or ſuch as no perſon could conjecture by his own reaſon a priori, were the caſes propoſed to him. Many of our laws, likewiſe, took their riſe from ſituations which now no longer exiſt: ſo that they cannot be properly underſtood without a review of the preceding ſtate and conſtitution of the country. On ſeveral accounts, therefore, we may naturally imagine, it muſt require much ſtudy and application to underſtand a ſituation ſo complex as ours, and to know even the general rules by which our conduct muſt be governed; in order to prevent this large ſociety of which we are members from being thrown into confuſion.

It may be ſaid, that there is in the country, a ſet of men, whoſe profeſſion it is to underſtand the laws, and to aſſiſt o-

thers in complying with the forms of them. But, beſides that no man of common prudence would chuſe implicitly to truſt himſelf and his property in the hands of any ſet of men whatever, if he could poſſibly acquire lights ſufficient to direct his own conduct; how many ſituations are there, in which a man may be neceſſarily obliged to act wholly unprovided with any aſſiſtance, and yet, where his obſervation of, perhaps, ſome arbitrary forms will be neceſſary to ſecure himſelf, or to make an effectual proviſion for thoſe perſons who are moſt dear to him; as is remarkably the caſe with reſpect to wills.

And if it be of importance to underſtand the laws of our country with reſpect to our own conduct, and the inconveniences we may bring upon ourſelves by our ignorance of them, of much more importance is this knowledge to thoſe perſons whoſe fortune, and whoſe ſtation in life give them any degree of influence over their fellow ſubjects, and who may laudably indulge the ambition which their fortune, family, and connexions inſpire, of appearing in the character of magiſtrates, or legiſlators in the ſtate; to have a voice in its councils, and to be concerned in enacting and repealing its laws, and in regulating its whole internal

internal policy. It requires no words to ſhow, how abſolutely unqualified is the man of mere wealth and rank in life to fill theſe important ſtations, without a knowledge of thoſe laws, and that conſtitution of his country of which he is appointed the guardian. It is evidently as prepoſterous, as for a Phyſician to undertake to preſcribe medicines without knowing the ſtructure of the human body, and the manner in which medicines operate upon it.

INDEED, it is more than to be feared, that our excellent conſtitution itſelf has already been a great ſufferer by the ignorance of thoſe who have tampered with it. Had its laws been thoroughly underſtood by all perſons concerned in the making and adminiſtration of them, it would, at this time, have been a far more uniform and perfect ſcheme of policy than it is. Dr. Blackſtone has juſtly obſerved, that "the "general incapacity even of our beſt juries "of deciding, with any tolerable propriety, "in thoſe points of law in which they are "required to decide, has greatly debaſed "their authority, and has unavoidably "thrown more power into the hands of its "judges, to direct, to controll, and reverſe "their verdicts, than perhaps the conſtitu-"tion intended." And it is a juſt complaint

plaint that the excellent ſymmetry of our laws has been greatly deſtroyed by injudicious acts of parliament. As the ſame excellent author obſerves, "Almoſt all the "perplexed queſtions, almoſt all the nice-"ties, intricacies, and delays, which have "ſometimes diſgraced the Engliſh, as well "as other courts of juſtice, are owing o-"riginally, not to the common-law itſelf, "but to the innovations which have been "made in it by acts of parliament, loaden "(as Coke expreſſes it) with proviſo's, "and additions, and many times on a ſud-"den penned, and corrected, by men of "none or very little judgment in law."

It is univerſally eſteemed the diſgrace of the Engliſh nation, that the gentlemen and ſcholars of it are generally ſo ſhamefully ignorant of that conſtitution which is their greateſt national glory, and which is regarded with admiration and envy by all foreigners. And not only doth this ignorance expoſe our nobility and gentry to the contempt of foreigners, when they are upon their travels; but it abſolutely unfits them for reaping the proper fruits of travel. The proper advantage of travel in a political view, it is univerſally allowed, muſt ariſe from comparing the conſtitution, laws, and cuſtoms of foreign nations with

thoſe of our own: but how can this compariſon be made, or any judgment formed of the conſtitution and laws of other countries with reſpect to our own, when that conſtitution, and thoſe laws with which they are to be compared, are unknown.

It may ſeem, indeed, to be a matter of indifference, which of two things to be compared be known the firſt; but in this caſe, I apprehend, the difference is very great. Nay, in fact, it is only one of them, viz. the conſtitution of our own country, that can be known firſt. At home, a young gentleman has a better opportunity of procuring aſſiſtance in theſe ſtudies: he may more eaſily be ſhown the ſeveral ſprings in the machine of government, with what it is that puts them in motion, and what it is that is moſt liable to obſtruct their motions; but abroad, let a gentleman take whom he pleaſes as a tutor in his travels, as both his tutor and himſelf will be foreigners, his obſervations muſt be directed, almoſt wholly, by his own ſagacity. If a gentleman begin his travels wholly unacquainted with the nature of laws and government, he will not know what enquiries to make, or what objects to turn his attention to; and therefore he muſt almoſt neceſſarily return as ignorant, as he

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ſet out. Whereas, a perſon who goes abroad properly furniſhed with a knowledge of the nature of government in general, and of the conſtitution and laws of his own country in particular, will know at once how to conduct his enquiries, and where to get all the intelligence he wants.

At Rome, every boy was obliged to learn the twelve tables by heart; and, about the time of the conqueſt, every Engliſhman of a liberal education, and particularly the clergy, excelled in the knowledge of our municipal laws, whence the common proverb, *Nemo clericus niſi cauſidicus.* Unfortunately, the civil law, upon its reception in the ſtates of Europe, and introduction into this kingdom, engroſſed all the attention of the clergy (many of whom were foreigners, and had acquired a fondneſs for it, and ſkill in it, before they were preſented with livings in England) and from that time the ſtudy of our common law, inſtead of being made a ſubject of general and national concern, became the property of a particular profeſſion. But the time is come, Gentlemen, when it is beginning to find its way back again into the ſeats of learning and polite education. It has already got an eſtabliſhment at Oxford,

ford, and it cannot fail, in time, to recommend itſelf in every place of truly liberal education.

Besides, the ſtudy of the conſtitntion and laws of our country; independent of its obligation upon us as members of the ſociety, and perſonally intereſted in being acquainted with the rules to which our lives, our liberty, our property, &c. are ſubject; and independent alſo of any proſpect we may have of being called to aſſiſt in improving or adminiſtering thoſe laws, exhibits a ſcene which juſtly challenges the attention of a philoſopher, and promiſes him the moſt rational entertainment. Philoſophy and legiſlation were originally the ſame ſtudy, the regulations of ſociety being juſtly deemed the moſt important ſubject on which the ableſt men could employ their beſt faculties. And no wonder the ſubjects of Government and laws ſhould have been conſidered as the greateſt objects of attention which human life affords, ſince the happineſs of mankind more immediately depends upon them. If it be the province of Philoſophy to diſcover the properties of great objects; or, which is the ſame thing, to diſcover truths relating to them; and, with reſpect to things which are in a ſtate of perpetual fluctuation,

fluctuation, to trace the cauſes of their preſent ſtate, and judge of their progreſs in futurity; if variety joined with uniformity contribute to recommend a ſubject to a philoſopher, this ſubject, of laws and government, is a proper field for philſophical ſpeculation.

In one reſpect, indeed, the laws and government of no human ſociety afford ſo agreeable an object of contemplation as the works of nature, which are contemplated in natural philoſophy and aſtronomy, or as the more abſtract ſciences of algebra and geometry. In theſe we find all the variety we can wiſh, enough to exerciſe the moſt exalted faculties, and yet a perfect uniformity reigning through the whole; whereas the conſtitution and laws of all human ſocieties preſent too much contrariety and inconſiſtency. Yet there is ſo much uniformity in theſe ſyſtems, ſuch a connection of parts, and ſuch a tendency to the ſame great end in the conſtruction of the ſeveral parts of this machine of government, particularly in our conſtitution, and the tenor of our laws; that, notwithſtanding ſome real inconſiſtencies, the contemplation of them cannot fail to be highly entertaining to a philoſophical mind; eſpecially if the progreſs of our laws and conſtitution

conſtitution be attended to, as having ariſen from the common principles of human nature, having varied with a natural ſucceſſion of circumſtances, and theſe, in an almoſt uninterrupted ſeries, growing more favourable to improvements and to happineſs.

To this account of the advantage accruing from this ſtudy, I may add, that without a knowledge of the conſtitution and laws of our country, it is impoſſible thoroughly to underſtand the hiſtory of it, by which means a ſtudious perſon would deprive himſelf of one of the greateſt pleaſures he can enjoy.

But the true reaſon why the Engliſh laws are not more ſtudied by the ſubjects of the Engliſh government, I am ſenſible, is not becauſe gentlemen and ſcholars among us do not think themſelves intereſted in the ſtudy of them, or that they apprehend the ſubject would not be pleaſing, provided they could once thoroughly underſtand it, but they are diſcouraged by the great difficulties attending the ſtudy. Indeed, it has not been with this as with other ſciences. In them the diſtribution of the ſubjects, and the method of teaching have generally improved with the enlargement of the ſcience itſelf; whereas, in this

caſe

caſe, the ſubject was actually grown beyond meaſure complex almoſt before any perſon ever thought of reducing it into method. And the attempts which have hitherto been made to methodize the vaſt body of our laws have not been ſo effectual, but that there is room for further improvement. But I flatter myſelf that I ſhall find myſelf leſs embarraſſed than others have been, becauſe I propoſe to do leſs than they have done.

All I intend, Gentlemen, in the preſent courſe of lectures, is to give, what may be called, the outline of the conſtitution of the Engliſh government, to lay down the general maxims and principles of it, and to remove the firſt obſtructions, which lie in the way of this ſtudy; in order to encourage and enable you to enter more thoroughly into the ſubject in your own private reſearches. My buſineſs is not to make you lawyers, but to add to the proper accompliſhments of gentlemen and ſcholars. I do not propoſe to inſtruct you in the arts of a profeſſion, but to diſcourſe with you upon our laws and government, as an important ſubject of ſcience, and a branch of real and uſeful knowledge, without which I cannot help looking upon a liberal education as defective in a moſt eſſential part.

To

To make the plan of this courſe of lectures more eaſy to myſelf, and more intelligible to you, I ſhall ſuffer myſelf to be guided, as much as poſſible, by the plan of the courſe you have already attended, on the ſtudy of hiſtory. You were there ſhown what are the greateſt and moſt important objects of attention to a reader of hiſtory, to a gentleman upon his travels, and, in ſhort, to every perſon who wiſhes to be an intelligent and uſeful member of ſociety. Now, in this courſe of lectures, I propoſe to ſhow you what the preſent ſtate of your own country affords that is moſt important under each of theſe heads, acquainting you what proviſion is made in our laws for ſecuring every object which you have been taught to conſider as moſt valuable in civil ſociety, as your lives, liberties, eſtates, &c.

I LIKEWISE propoſe to delineate to you the external form of our government, with reſpect to its civil, its military, and its eccleſiaſtical conſtitution, with the rank and duty of all the officers or magiſtrates in each of theſe departments. In ſhort, Gentlemen, I ſhall endeavour to ſhow you in what kind of a ſituation divine providence has placed you; that you may ſee

what rank you yourſelves hold in the community of which you are members; and that, knowing what your place in the ſociety is, you may know what is your duty, and what are your expectations.

A SYLLABUS

A SYLLABUS OF A COURSE of LECTURES ON THE CONSTITUTION AND LAWS of ENGLAND.

THE GENERAL DIVISION OF THE SUBJECT.

TO exhibit as distinct a view as possible of the whole state of this country, I shall first consider its CIVIL, and then its ECCLESIASTICAL constitution and laws. In laying down what relates to the civil state of the kingdom, I shall be guided by a view to the great objects of all civil

policy; relating, in the firſt place, thoſe inſtitutions which tend to make us HAPPY, and conſequently POPULOUS at home; then thoſe which tend to make us FORMIDABLE abroad, and laſtly ſhow the manner in which the EXPENCES OF OUR GOVERNMENT are defrayed. In explaining the proviſion there is made, in our conſtitution and laws, for ſecuring the internal peace and happineſs of the ſtate, I ſhall conſider, I. The LEGISLATIVE power of the ſtate. II. The EXECUTIVE power. III. the LAWS of the ſtate. IV. The METHOD OF PROCEEDING IN THE COURTS, in order to obtain the benefit of the laws. When I conſider the laws of the ſtate, I ſhall, in the firſt place, explain thoſe regulations which are of a PUBLIC or more general nature; and then the mutual obligations of INDIVIDUALS to one another. Under the former of theſe heads, I ſhall place thoſe laws which have for their immediate object the preſervation of the government itſelf, thoſe which relate to trade and commerce, and to public conveniences of various kinds. Under the latter head I ſhall ſhew the proviſion which our laws have made to guard our lives, limbs, liberty, reputation, and property, real and perſonal; alſo thoſe which relate to the commerce of the ſexes,

and

and the domeſtic relations. After exhibiting the ſtate of the laws reſpecting natives, I ſhall conſider how they regard ALIENS; and when every thing relating to law has been diſcuſſed, the buſineſs of EQUITY will be explained.

BEFORE any part of this ſcheme be entered upon, it will be convenient to lay down the general DIVISION OF THE COUNTRY, and a deſcription of the ſeveral ORDERS OF MEN in it.

THE CONTENTS OF EACH PARTICULAR LECTURE.

LECTURE I. DIVISION OF THE COUNTRY, AND OF THE PEOPLE. Counties. Hundreds. Tythings. Dioceſes. Pariſhes. THE KING, AND THE ORDER OF HIS COURT. Order of ſucceſſion to the crown. Style, and ceremonies in attending upon him. Title. THREEFOLD ORDER OF THE BRITISH COURT. CIVIL order. The Lord Steward. His court and juriſdiction. Officers under him. The MILITARY order. The band of gentlemen penſioners. Their captain, and the officers under him. Yeomen of the guard. Troops of the houſhold. The

The horſe and foot guards. The ECCLESIASTICAL order of the court. The chapel royal, and its dean. The ſub-dean, twelve prieſts, and chapel clerk &c. Houſhold days, Chriſtmas, Eaſter, Whitſunday, and all Saints, with the ceremonies peculiar to each. Chaplains in ordinary. The king's cloſet, and the clerk of it. The king's almonry. The Lord Almoner. Ceremonies on thurſday in paſſion week. The civil-liſt revenue.

LECTURE II. THE queen conſort, her rank and privileges. Queen dowager. The prerogative of the Kings eldeſt ſon, the prince of Wales. The younger branches of the royal family. The NOBILITY. Peers by creation, deſcent, and preſcription. Dukes. Marquiſes. Earls. Viſcounts. Barons. Their antiquity ancient and preſent ſtate, &c. Titles and honours common to all the nobility; or peculiar to ſome of them, or to their ſons. Order of precedence among the nobility and their ſons. The privileges of Engliſh peers.

LECTURE III. OF the Engliſh GENTRY, Baronets. Knights batchelors. Knights-Bannerets. Eſquires. Gentlemen. Of the COMMONALTY. Yeomen. A general View of the privileges of the Engliſh commonalty. Of the order of the

the Garter. It's origin, officers, &c. Knights of the Bath. The office of Earl-Marſhal. The antiquity and uſe of coat-armour. The kings at arms. Garter. Clarencieux. Norroy. Their ſeveral offices. The ſix Engliſh Heralds and the Brunſwick herald. The purſuivants.

LECTURE IV. Of the ſupreme LEGISLATIVE power in the ſtate, as lodged in the king and the two houſes of PARLIAMENT. The members of theſe houſes for England, and Scotland. Their qualifications, and thoſe of the electors. Ancient ſtate of national repreſentation in the Engliſh parliament. Who may not ſit in Parliament, in conſequence of acts which have paſſed ſince the revolution. Laws relating to bribery and corruption in the election of ~~the~~ members of parliament. Method of ſummons. The power of each member. Laws and cuſtoms of parliament. Freedom of ſpeech in the houſe. Privileges of members out of the houſe. Reſtrictions which have been put upon theſe privileges, with reſpect to members who are criminals or debtors. The peculiar privileges of the Lords, as members of the houſe of Lords. The prerogatives of each of the two houſes. The manner in which bills are uſually paſſed. Adjourning

proroguing, and diſſolving the parliament. The ſpeaker of the houſe of lords, and other officers belonging to it, as the clerk of the crown, clerk of parliament, and uſher of the black rod, &c. The ſpeaker of the houſe of Commons. The nature and antiquity of his office. The officers of the houſe. Oaths to be taken by the members. The grand committee, and other committees of the houſe. Order of ſpeaking to bills, &c. method of promulgating the acts.

LECTURE V. Of the ſupreme EXECUTIVE power of the ſtate. The power and prerogatives of the KING, in domeſtic and foreign affairs. In what ſenſe he is the fountain of juſtice, of honour, of office, and of privilege, and the arbiter of domeſtic commerce. Of the inſtruments by which the power of the king is exerted. The kings PRIVY COUNCIL. How the members are choſen, and removed. The oath of the members. Method of conducting debates, ancient, and preſent power of the council. The preſident of the council. The cabinet council. The two principal SECRETARIES OF STATE. Their antiquity, ancient and preſent power. Their joint and ſeparate office. The ſignet-office.

fice. The paper-office. The privy ſeal. The great ſeal of the kingdom. The office of the LORD CHANCELLOR as keeper of it. The order in which grants, &c. paſs the ſeveral offices, before they come to the great ſeal.

LECTURE VI. THE power of adminiſtering the law. The nature of COURTS OF JUSTICE. Courts of record, and not of record. The office of Judge. Serjeants. Barriſters. Regiſters, &c. Attorneys at law. The Kings attorney-general. Sollicitor-general. The ſeparate power of the houſe of Lords and Commons, as courts of juſtice. The court of CHANCERY. Its twofold juriſdiction. The ordinary or legal court, and the buſineſs of it. The court of equity. A general view of the nature of it, and of the cauſes that come before it. The twelve maſters of chancery under the Lord high chancellor. The maſter of the rolls.

LECTURE VII. OF the court of King's-bench. Antiquity of it. The Lord chief juſtice of England, and the three other judges or juſtices of the kings bench. The extent of its authority. Its power over inferior courts. The diviſion of the court of kings-bench into the crown-

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ſide and plea-ſide. Of the court of COMMON PLEAS. The Lord chief juſtice of the common pleas, and the buſineſs of this court. Officers belonging to it. Of the Court of EXCHEQUER. When erected. The two parts of the exchequer. The twofold juriſdiction of the judicial part of it. The court of equity in exchequer. The Barons of exchequer. The curſitor baron, and other officers. What buſineſs is uſually done in the court of exchequer, and the form of proceeding in it. The four terms in which the three courts mentioned in this lecture are open, Hilary, Eaſter, Trinity and Michaelmas.

LECTURE VIII. OF the INFERIOR COURTS OF JUSTICE. The court of ASSIZES. The circuits. The commiſſions of the judges, and the extent of their power. The QUARTER SESSIONS. The buſineſs done there. Who are obliged to attend them. The PETTY SESSIONS. Of the TURN, the power of the Sheriff in it formerly. The COUNTY-COURTS, when their power was reduced. What buſineſs is now done in them. The HUNDRED COURTS. Their ancient and preſent ſtate. COURTS LEET. The original deſign of them, antient and preſent ſtate, &c.

LECTURE

LECTURE IX. COURTS OF PARTICULAR AND LIMITED JURISDICTION. The counties Palatine. The dutchy of Lancaſter. The counties corporate. The courts of the cinque-ports. The Lord warden of the cinque-ports. The reaſons for the ancient privileges of the cinque-ports. The ſtannary courts. The court of the mayor of the ſtaple. Of the law-merchant. The courts of the city of London. The extent of their juriſdiction and the officers who preſide in them. The courts of the univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge. Courts of conſcience. Courts-Baron, and courts of ancient demeſne, their ancient and preſent ſtate. Of ths foreſt-laws. Officers in the foreſts. Juſtices in eyre. Regarder. Verderers, &c. The courts of woodmote, ſwainmote, and the courts of chief juſtice in the foreſt. Ancient and preſent ſtate of the foreſt laws and courts. General remarks on the ſtate of juriſdiction in England.

LECTURE X. OF the MAGISTRATES who act IN AN OFFICIAL CAPACITY, in the adminiſtration of the laws. Sheriffs. How nominated. Their judicial and miniſterial power. Officers under them. How far they are accountable for the conduct of theſe inferior officers. Bailiffs.

Bailiffs. Bailiffs of hundreds, and ſpecial Bailiffs. Jailers. Juſtices of the peace. When inſtituted. Their joint and ſeparate power. Coroners. The manner of taking an inqueſt. Treaſurers of counties. Origin and power of conſtables. Other officers ſimilar to conſtables. Penalties for negligence or oppreſſion by public officers in the adminiſtration of juſtice.

LECTURE XI. Of the ſeveral denominations of laws uſed in England. Commons law and ſtatute law. Equity. Foreign laws admitted in England. Uſe of the civil law. Of the canon law. Of the laws and the adminiſtration of them in Scotland, Ireland, Wales, Iſle of Man, Jerſey, Guernſey. Laws of a public nature, and firſt of thoſe laws which have for their immediate object, the preſervation of the government itſelf. Of the laws concerning Treason. The ſtatute of Edward the third explained. Of trials for high treaſon. Puniſhment. Who may be guilty of high treaſon. Other offences reſpecting the king's perſon palaces, &c. Of riots. The power of the ſheriff, &c. to ſuppreſs riots. Of the late acts concerning riots. Routs. Going armed with dangerous weapons, threatning letters. An affray.

LECTURE

LECTURE XII. Of the LAWS WHICH RESPECT PUBLIC TRADE AND COMMERCE. The regulation of fairs, and markets, ancient ſtate of markets. The court of Piepowders. Of Toll. In what circumſtances ſale in open markets does or does not alter the property of things ſold. The clerk of the market. The laws concerning foreſtalling, regrating and engroſſing, and alſo concerning monopolies. Of Apprentices. The mutual obligations of them and of their maſters, and their reſpective remedies for ill uſage. Poor apprentices. The proviſion that is made by our laws to keep arts and trades within the country. What materials of our manufactures are forbidden to be exported. Laws to prevent ſmuggling.

LECTURE XIII. Regulations concerning the COIN. What coin is current. Laws to prevent counterfeiting, impairing, or defacing the coin. Regulations of weights and meaſures. Laws concerning BANKRUPTCY. Who may be bankrupts. Method of iſſuing out a commiſſion of bankruptcy. Power of the commiſſioners. Aſſignees. Proviſion for bankrupts. Puniſhment of fraudulent bankruptcy. The famous Navigation-act. The Poſt-office, its origin, and preſent ſtate. An account

account of the eſtabliſhment and preſent ſtate of all the moſt conſiderable trading companies in England, and their reſpective legal privileges. The Eaſt India company. The Turky company. The ſociety of merchants adventurers. Ruſſia company. Eaſt-land company. The African trade. Of the board of trade. Of foreign conſuls.

LECTURE XIV. Laws providing for the public health. Selling unwholſome proviſions. Promoting the plague. Laws concerning ſeveral other matters of public convenience. Of the highways. Surveyors of the highways. Penalties for obſtructing or damaging them. Proviſion for the poor of the kingdom. How they were maintained before the reign of queen Elizabeth, and how ſince. Overſeers of the poor. Who may be compelled to provide for their poor relations. Of ſettlements. Of the interference of juſtices of the peace in appointing proviſion for poor perſons who apply to them. Houſes for the reception of the poor, and for obliging them to work. Houſes of correction for the diſſolute poor. Who may be ſent to them and compelled to hard labour. Officers in theſe houſes.

LECTURE

LECTURE XV. LAWS RELATING TO THE CONDUCT AND MUTUAL OBLIGATION OF INDIVIDUALS IN THE SOCIETY The proviſion that is made in our laws for ſecuring men's lives. Self-murder. Penalty. Murder. In what circumſtances a death will be deemed to be murder. Duelling. Killing officers of juſtice. Of manſlaughter. The ſtatute concerning ſtabbing. Of chance medley. Death per infortunium. Deodands. Se defendendo. Caſes of juſtifiable homicide.

LECTURE XVI. OF the proviſion which is made in our laws for the ſafety of our limbs. The laws concerning maiming and diſfiguring. Of battery, and aſſault. Laws in favour of perſonal liberty. Of Kidnapping. Laws relating to the writ of Habeas Corpus particularly that made in the reign of Charles II. Unlawful impriſonment. Laws which tend to ſecure men's reputation. Actions of the caſe for words. Laws concerning libels. Obſervations on them.

LECTURE XVII. THE care which our Laws have taken of our PROPERTY real, and perſonal. Previous definitions of terms reſpecting eſtates in land. Of the TENURES by which eſtates are held. Origin of tenures. Tenure by military ſervice, with

with its ancient varieties. Soccage eſtates, and their progreſs. Villenage. Ancient and preſent ſtate of that tenure. Modern copyholders. Of manors and honors, with the demeſnes, waſte, ſervices, court, and officers belonging to a manor.

LECTURE XVIII. ESTATES held by copy of court roll. Fines due upon them. Method of alienating them. Privileged villenage, or villan-ſoccage in lands of ancient demeſne. Origin of their privileges. Frankalmoin. DIVISION OF ESTATES ACCORDING TO THEIR QUANTITY OF INTEREST. Freehold, and leſs than freehold. Fee ſimple, what words in grants conſtitute it. Lands in abbeyance. Eſtates for life. Properties of all uncertain eſtates. What theſe tenants may do without committing waſte.

LECTURE XIX. Origin of modern Fees-tail. General and ſpecial. What may be intailed. Various methods which have from time to time been uſed to cut off intailed eſtates. ESTATES LESS THAN FREEHOLD. Eſtates of years. Eſtates at will. Eſtates at ſufferance. Of conditional eſtates.

LECTURE XX. OF eſtates in gage. Life-gage. Mortgage. Caſe of ſeveral mortgages upon the ſame eſtate. Eſtates in

in expectancy. Remainders. What are eſſential to them, and who are capable of them. Remainders veſted or contingent. Method of conveyancing to prevent diſappointing contingent eſtates. An executory deviſe. Reverſions. Leſs eſtates merged in greater.

LECTURE XXI. Of eſtates with reſpect to THE NUMBER AND CONNECTION OF TENANTS. Eſtates in Jointenancy. Coparceners. Eſtates in common. The ſtatute of partition. The right of ſurvivorſhip in all the above-mentioned eſtates, and other properties of them.

LECTURE XXII. Of TITLES TO ESTATES, viz. by deſcent, or by purchaſe. Of the degrees of conſanguinity, lineal, and collateral. Different methods of computing thoſe degrees in different laws. The eight rules of deſcent, or canons of inheritance from Dr. Blackſtone explained. Gavelkind. Burrough Engliſh, &c. Who are incapable of being heirs. Heirlooms. How the heir is favoured by the laws of England.

LECTURE XXIII. Of eſtates acquired by purchaſe in its largeſt ſenſe. Different properties of eſtates by deſcent, and eſtates by purchaſe. What right in lands may

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